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ABSTRACT

The introductory chapter of this booklet describes the problems which ESEA Title 1 funds (over a billion dollars to local school districts) were intended to help solve. Each of five chapters is devoted to descriptions of a number of specific Title I projects, presented as examples of what local school districts might undertake in improving the experience of educationally deprived children. The chapters and some of their subtopics are (1) "Training Better Teachers and Getting New Ones"--a citywide workshop, summer teacher projects, shortcut to teacher recruitment, teachers on parttime schedule, master teacher and student teacher practicum, teaching remedial reading to subject specialists; (2) "Aides for Teachers"--home visiting-aides, training of child-care aides, lay readers, recruiting and training aides, foreign language laboratory aides, typical duties of aides; (3) "School Volunteers"--volunteers for a reading program and for conversational English, teenage volunteers for libraries, senior citizen volunteers; (4) "Child-to-Child Tutoring"--sixth graders tutor first graders, research in attitudinal changes of tutors, tutors devise their own curriculum, tutoring built on out-of-school interests, a babysitting service; (5) "A Community Has All the People a School Needs"--partnership with the university, high school remedial reading in college, guests from other lands, self-teaching by typewriter, adventure in a Kentucky Hollow, community resource representative. (JS)

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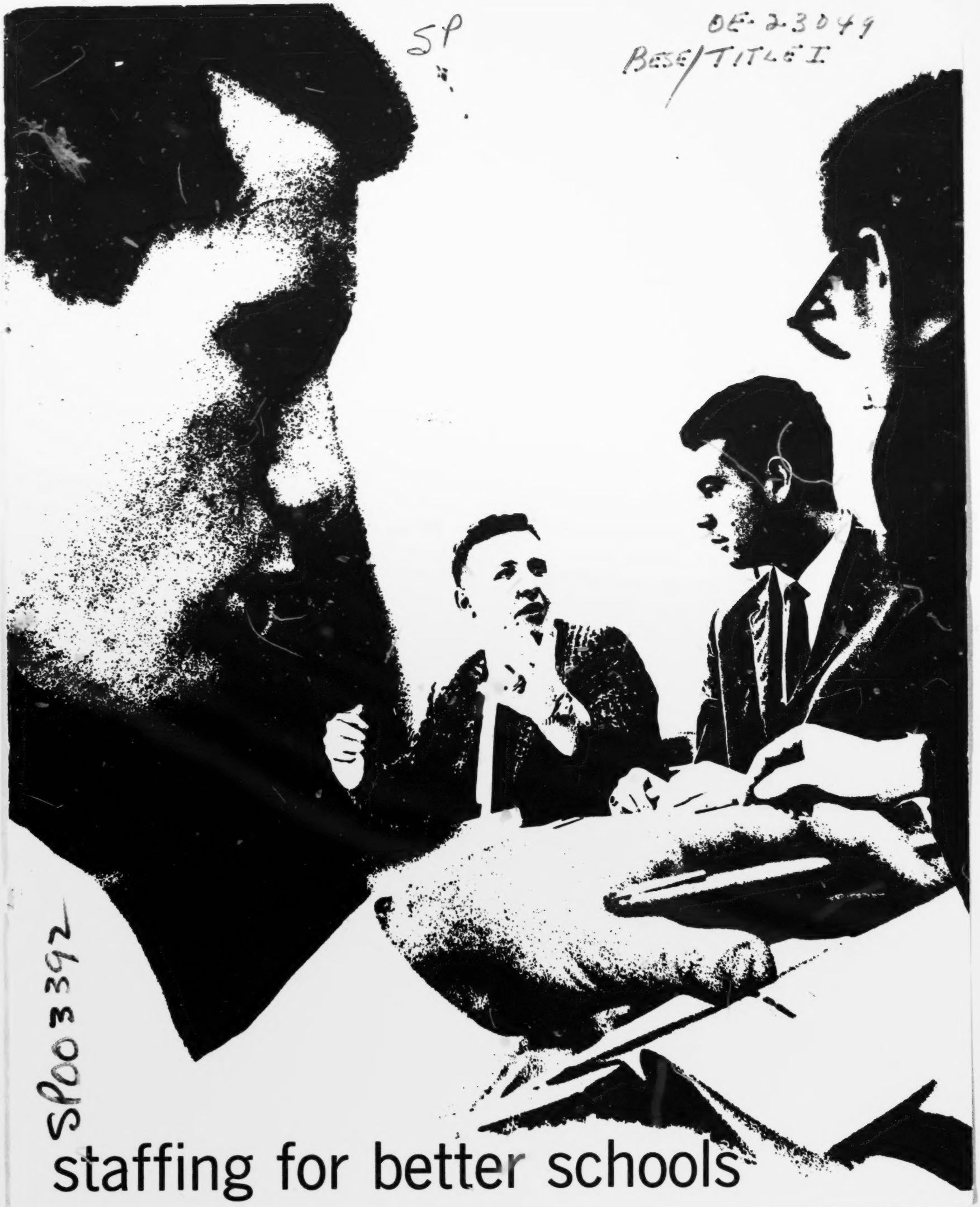

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Staffing for Better Schools under TITLE I
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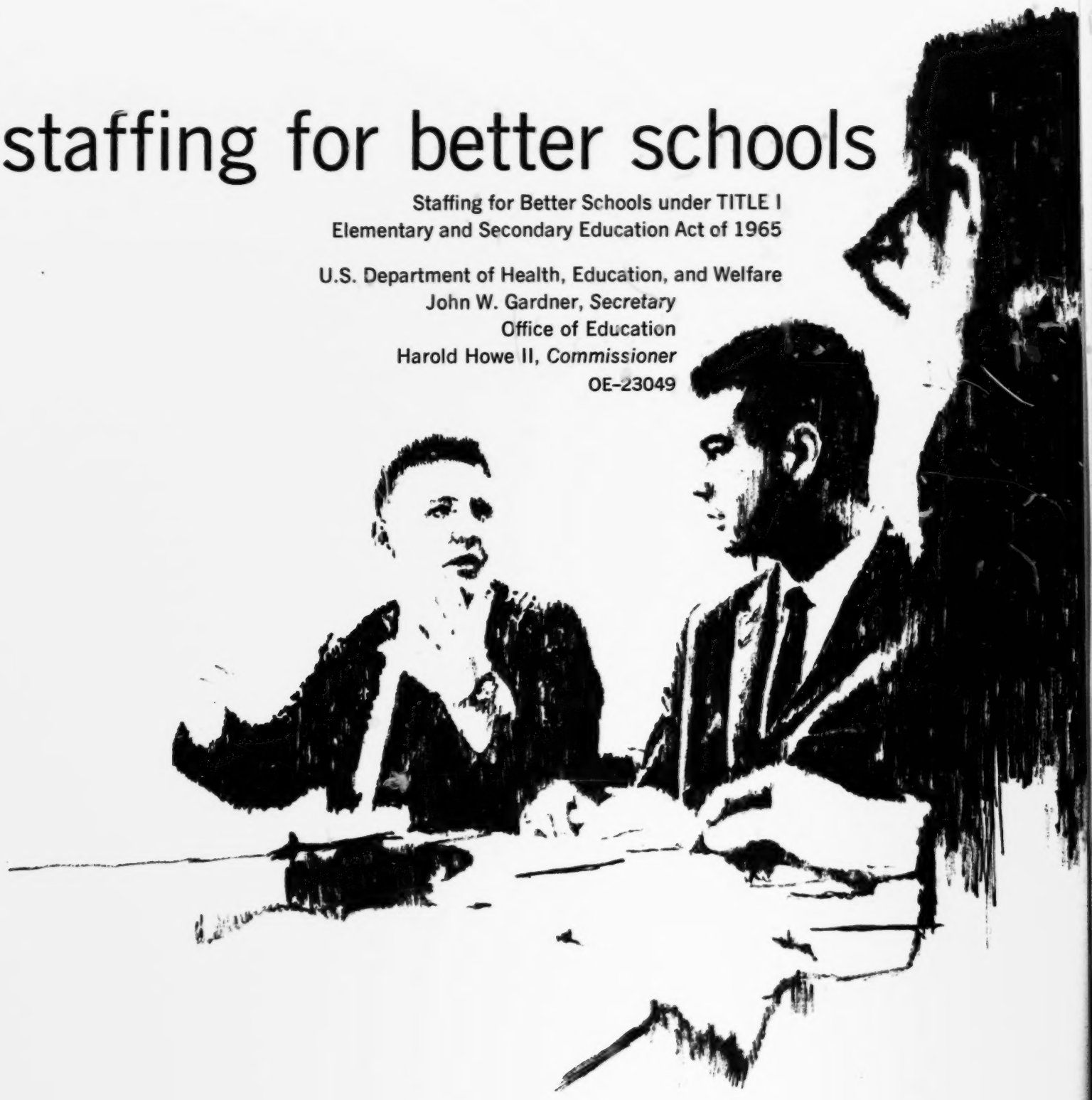

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FOREWORD

American educators today are earnestly seeking new ways to reach the minds and spirits of children. To some extent, this search for solutions to some of the age-old problems of education is stimulated by Federal programs, particularly Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, which funds local projects to improve education for the children of poverty. But the spirit of innovation and improvement is not confined to those schools serving the disadvantaged. Educational technology, improved understanding of the learning process, and a clearer concept of the pupil as a "whole child" are causing educators everywhere to reassess curriculum and teaching methods with a view to strengthening and enriching their school programs.

Almost everywhere—and particularly in those schools serving disadvantaged children—the shortage of skilled personnel seems a major obstacle to more effective programs.

We need more teachers and other skilled staff. Certainly we should spare no effort to encourage talented young people to enter, and to remain in, the educational professions. At the same time, we owe it to our teachers, and their pupils, to make the best possible use of teacher talent, through training, through the use of subprofessional or volunteer helpers, and through the wise use of available community resources. Many schools, as Dr. Provus and his coauthors show in this book, have found that some unorthodox approaches to school staffing may prove far more than a stopgap to the personnel problem—they may, in fact, enrich the classroom experience for all, breach the "paper curtain" which has separated the school from the community, and help lead American education into a period of dynamic growth and progress.

"Staffing for Better Schools" was prepared by Malcolm Provus, director of research, Pittsburgh, Pa., public schools, and research professor, University of Pittsburgh; Louis Long, psychologist, National Teacher Corps, Washington, D.C.; Morris Haimowitz, director, Bureau of Human Relations, Chicago, Ill., public schools; Thorwald Esbensen, assistant superintendent of schools in charge of instruction, Duluth, Minn.; Dorothy Millhouse, teacher, Los Angeles, Calif., public schools; Kiernan Stenson, assistant director, Action Housing, Pittsburgh, Pa.; Bernard Asbell, writer, Wilton, Conn.

We are grateful indeed to our distinguished authors for their careful research and lively presentation of these case studies, and trust that these examples may provide some constructive solutions to the complex staffing problems that American educators face today.

JOHN F. HUGHES,
Director,
Division of Compensatory Education,
Bureau of Elementary and Secondary Education.

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I

THE JOB CAN BE DONE

Not long ago teachers in a California city took part in a round of seminars on how best to improve the school experience of educationally deprived children. After the meetings the teachers were asked to identify the single most important thing that might help teachers of the deprived teach better—and that would lure great numbers of new teachers to accept the difficult challenge of ghetto schools. A small number voted for higher salaries, others for shorter hours or more equipment. Overwhelmingly, however, teachers placed their highest priority on reducing the size of classes. This conclusion will hardly surprise anybody. Surveys in other places have come up with the same result.

Satisfying that need appears, on the surface, to be easy. All it seems to take is money—to pay for more teachers. And an important new source of money is now available. This year Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) brings over a billion dollars to local school districts for use in any reasonable way that promises to help erase educational disadvantage of school children. These are especially valuable educational dollars, for the adminis-

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trator is given wide latitude in spending them. He may select critical areas in which money can help produce maximum change and spend all his dollars there. If school leaders judge that spending money for more teachers is a good use of Title I funds, they are legally free to do so.

But as any administrator is sure to discover, Title I dollars alone are no panacea. This freedom has opened a new problem, vast, deep, and not to be solved simply:

Where are the teachers to come from?

Take a city the size of Detroit. If such a city were to reduce the enrollment of each class by five students, it would need to hire 2,000 teachers. If the same reduction were spread across America, the increased need for teachers would be numbered in hundreds of thousands.

Yet, in trying to keep up with staff needs for current enrollments, superintendents compete with one another in wooing graduates of teachers colleges; those who fall short of their quotas raid neighboring school systems for additional help. Precious as education graduates are, each year 50,000 newly qualified teachers take jobs other than teaching. Each year tens of thousands of practicing teachers leave the schools to marry, to have children, or to enter other occupations.

What is called a teacher shortage is therefore not a shortage at all; instead, there is a shortage of teachers who work in the schools. It follows then that the first task in relieving the shortage of active teachers is to reattract qualified professionals back to the classroom. This can be done by making salaries and working conditions more desirable, raising teachers' status and sense of involvement by engaging them in planning, making them feel a vital part of an important national commitment, and deepening their understanding of the deprived child.

If the children who suffer from the educational deprivations accompanying poverty are to get an equal chance at school success, schools must do more than merely provide for smaller classes and additional teachers—even if both were possible. Classroom teachers should have the help of supporting professionals. More than 2,000 specialists are needed immediately in remedial reading. Yet, fewer than 200 of these specialists graduate each year from all the Nation's colleges, according to one informed estimate. Many experts believe that each school should have one school social worker for every 150 students—or a national total of 33,000 for poverty areas alone. At present only 5,000 school social workers are employed throughout the United States and fewer than 250 new ones are graduating each year. Thousands upon thousands of schools are without staff nurses.

Recently one State reported that Title I funds had made it possible to hire 40 nurses for schools that had never had them before. But the joy of this announcement was tempered by an outcry from neighboring hospitals and nursing homes declaring that the nurses had been stolen from them.

These disheartening facts measure the staffing problem only in numerical terms. A more serious problem is lack of quality. Until recently not much thought had been devoted to the need for a special quality of teaching and for special programs for schools of the educationally disadvantaged. Failure of pupils to keep up to their grade level was blamed on the pupils themselves rather than on teachers and schools. In teachers' lunchrooms shoptalk was punctuated by a high incidence of the word "dumb." If a teacher was asked why kids were so dumb, his answer, after a troubled shrug, was very likely "I try in every way I know to teach them, but they don't want to learn. After all, look at their IQ's."

That, traditionally, has been the teacher's ultimate condemnation. One of the rules taught at some teachers colleges has been that an intelligence quotient describes the classroom potential of a child. If a child's score is low, he is a goner, unteachable, dumb.

Less than 5 years ago, however, the idea began to crystallize in the minds of a few people—a teacher here, a foundation official there, a

professor of psychiatry here, a school social worker there—that the slum child is a child of another world. Our laws do not bind him, our standard middle-class ambitions do not inspire him, our IQ's do not measure him and, most of all, our teachers do not reach him. Rules learned in college clearly don't work in the slum school, but some teachers cling to them, for no one has taught them otherwise. In first to third grades, the child begins to slip away; by the fourth grade, he has fallen behind; by the eighth grade, he may be as many as three years behind, his mind closed, his behavior rebellious. By high school age, he is more than likely a dropout, headed for chronic unemployment, disdainful of the "outside" middle-class world that he believes already disdains him, secretly contemptuous of himself—a wasted human being.

In identifying and trying to describe this child, educators have tried out a number of descriptive names for him. At first, they called him "culturally deprived" though some insisted on "culturally different"; finally, they settled on "educationally deprived" and "educationally disadvantaged." Regardless of the identifying label, what sets him apart is not the want of money or nice clothes, good furniture or good food, but the poverty of enriching experiences. These children are growing up unequipped to live in an urban, primarily middle-class world of papers and pens, books and conversations, machines and desks, and time-clocks.

Yet the failure of schools to educate these children, though widespread has not been universal. Here and there an isolated teacher has succeeded. At first there appeared no ready explanations. One successful teacher was authoritarian, another permissive. One would carefully cover the ground of a lesson plan, another would depart widely from it. But the fact that some teachers could guide the "unteachable" to learn stood as an insistent challenge. If a few could lead children in learning, the responsibility for failure could no longer be heaped upon the child. There was a way, no matter now mysterious and elusive, to make school a place of success for children who had seemed condemned to failure. The way has to be identified, described, and taught—to teachers. This remains the single most important challenge to teachers, administrators, and State and Federal education officials involved in the new national commitment—providing children of the poor with education as a tool to self-advancement.

If successful teachers in schools of the poor have any special technique, it appears to be in helping the child to relate his learning experience in school to the real world out of school. One such successful teacher is found in a large Midwestern city in an ordinary class of slum children. Their IQ scores are low. Their cultural deprivation is severe. Their families are paralyzed by poverty.

One day recently her first-grade class was reading aloud about space capsules and oxygen. One of the words a child read was weightlessness. Why not? The teacher had first made them curious about gravity, then weight and, finally, weightlessness. Once they grasped the idea, the children had need for a word to describe it. She gave them the word. They treasure its sound, its sight, and its correct spelling.

The teacher ignores IQ's and believes there is no such thing as a first-grade vocabulary. She believes children will learn words they need to know and their needs depend on the excitement in their minds. To excite their minds, the teacher almost never talks at them. She asks q u e s t i o n s—carefully chosen questions the children can answer. She leads them in constructing old information into new ideas; they experience the joys of finding out, and delight in a feeling of success with every question and every answer.

Since the teacher ignores the prescribed first-grade vocabulary, she ignores first-grade textbooks. During breaks in activity children go to a "reading table," which is strewn with books from many levels, and choose a book that interests them. If the ideas are interesting, they learn the words. They seldom select books that say "Look, Dick, Look—Run, Jane, Run."

The unflagging interest in the room and the brightness of the minds make it easy for one to forget that these are culturally deprived children in a slum district. They seem to be a class of the especially gifted—and of course they are. They are gifted with a teacher who really likes them and who believes that all children, including slum children, want to learn whatever is exciting and useful. With a teacher in the first grade who helps to mold them, they may not need a remedial teacher in the seventh grade, when it might be too late.

All right, she is a great teacher. But can her techniques be transferred to others?

Another spectacular success story involves not merely a single classroom but a whole school district of 23 virtually all-Negro elementary schools, the Banneker district of the St. Louis school system. Perhaps the most surprising feature of the district's achievement is that it was attained with no significant change in classroom materials or study plans. Yet the accomplishment, led by Samuel Shepard, Jr., district superintendent, has raised school attendance from the lowest in the city to the city's average. Pupils' academic achievement rose steadily until eighth-grade graduates tested at national norms for reading and arithmetic and slightly higher than national norms for language skills.

Dr. Shepard's success may be ascribed to several things. He required teachers to spend afterschool time in visiting homes of their pupils. Ostensibly, they made these visits to advise parents on how to help their children do homework; for example, by allotting time and study space. What Dr. Shepard really wanted was to expose his teachers—many for the first time—to the seemingly hopeless home and neighborhood lives of their pupils. On these visits teachers urged parents to come to school meetings to learn how to help their children by encouraging study. Parents were surprised; they had never been asked to school before unless a child was in trouble. The superintendent arranged study places in libraries and community buildings and urged parents in crowded homes to bring children there. He distributed homework assignment booklets to children and asked parents to sign them each week, affirming that they had inspected their children's homework. He was less concerned with the inspection than with making the parents feel they were participating and needed.

As pupils' academic achievement began to rise, a strange thing happened. Teachers with seniority stopped asking for transfers to "nicer" neighborhoods, as teachers do in almost all slum districts. Instead, Dr. Shepard found himself bombarded by applications for transfers into his district at more than five times the rate of vacancies. Just as the pupils and parents hungered for the nourishment of success, so did the teachers.

The success of this school district was built slowly over the last 8 years. While funds available today under Title I can speed such a process if they are used creatively, they can also slow it and intensify the problem. Misguided activities may result in exhausting the best, most enthusiastic teachers and forcing them to seek transfers out of the problem schools. Thus the ghetto again becomes a segregated area with inexperienced teachers or teachers who never quite made it in "better" schools.

The challenge presented by Title I is not to add new ways of spending money to old ways of running schools, but to develop strategies in engaging children's minds and in using the talents and skills of dedicated persons—the teachers and administrators who are determined to make schools of the ghetto and backroads into better places of learning. And there are others who can help us in this task—but they must come from untraditional sources.

Title I requires us to create more jobs for serving children—but without requiring more teachers. Does every task performed by a teacher in a given day call for 4 to 6 years of college training? Obviously not. This highly trained professional can delegate many specialized tasks to subprofessionals and helpers who are available in abundance. Thus, the teacher would have more time to teach.

Intelligent use of volunteers, subprofessionals, and paraprofessionals can lengthen and strengthen the arms of a teacher. But helpers cannot make a poor teacher into a good one. They cannot substitute for a teacher's imagination, understanding, and high expectations. They can hardly infuse education with a sense of reality if a teacher-in-charge has an unrealistic sense of her pupils' lives. Volunteers, aides, and tutors can be valuable members of a team trying to win a game. But they are not a strategy for victory.

Strategy must rest on sharpening the training of teachers and administrators in schools of the poor. The main effort must go into s p r e a d i n g the information—gleaned from case stories, here, there, anywhere—on how disadvantaged children have learned successfully. This means relentless, ambitious programs of inservice training of teachers and the administrators charged with leading them.

A significant characteristic of many of the case reports in the following pages is that teachers were deeply involved in planning the projects. This automatically makes them stronger projects; they are based on the classroom experience of imaginative professionals. The teachers involved in planning were invited, perhaps for the first time in their careers, to think analytically and creatively about the uncharted sea of educating the poor. The

planners—the teachers themselves—had a heavy investment in turning their ideas into success stories. Through such intangibles of human motivation, worlds have been changed. Perhaps such intangibles can now be employed to change the world of the disadvantaged child.

Changing the world of this child means changing the school lives of all children for the better. As part of the current concern for the disadvantaged child, more experimentation and research are being conducted in a single year than public schools could previously afford in a decade. The questions being asked are fundamental; for example, questions about relationships between students, subject matter, teachers, and administrators. The questions transcend the specialized needs of deprived youngsters. We are probing deeply into what motivates students—all students. We must learn how to stimulate communication and rapport between teachers and administrators as well as teachers and pupils and how to relate school curriculum to out-of-school experience. These questions—and the answers they are bound to produce—cannot fail to improve classroom procedures, personnel practices, and the organization of schools, regardless of the backgrounds of pupils.

The pages that follow give examples of possible projects that local school districts may choose to undertake for improving the quality of their present teachers: for recruiting, training, and utilizing many kinds of aides, either paid or volunteer, to extend the arms of the professional teaching staff and for developing new kinds of productive ties with the community.

II

TRAINING BETTER TEACHERS AND GETTING NEW ONES

A CITYWIDE WORKSHOP

Recently a large Eastern school district conducted a 1-week summer workshop on disadvantaged children which was attended by 150 staff members, including classroom teachers, administrators, guidance counselors, school psychologists, social workers, and community agents. An obvious purpose of the workshop was to promote the skills and attitudes that help underprivileged children learn. But an equally important goal was to gather these professionals into a single room and focus their attention on a single program, in the hope of uniting them in a common purpose and improving communication between them.

A sociologist known for his skill in presenting programs for improving human relations conducted the first day of the workshop. He demonstrated, through small-group discussion, three conflicting forces in the personality of each teacher—in fact, of each person. Drawing from material in a currently popular book on psychology, "Games People Play," by Eric Berne, M.D., he defined these forces as teacher acting in the role of parent, teacher as adult, and teacher as child. Through role playing, he demonstrated that any teacher might observe the same student behavior through three different frames of reference and thereby see three different things. Therefore, what we see, he pointed out, depends upon what part we allow to control our observations. A teacher might reduce a problem or contribute to it, depending upon the values he brought to observing it.

The second day of the workshop dealt with methods of measuring a child's behavior. These included standardized tests, attitude instruments, and diagnostic and clinical tests. There was also a review of such statistical terms as median, mean, standard deviation, and correlation. Teachers then discussed such matters as grade—equivalence scores, the relationship between IQ and school achievement, the imprecision of tests as real measurements, and the importance to instructional planning of a knowledge of ethnic characteristics and individual profiles.

On the third day, teachers were

given practice in role playing to heighten their awareness of what it may feel like to be any of the participants in the kinds of real-life conflict that may take place in the school. They took turns as a school authority; then as a recalcitrant student, each acting out a clash; and then as a parent, a truant officer, a teacher, even a small child. After "experiencing," in their role playing, a child's urge toward unruly behavior, the participants were better able to be objective about emotions, tantrums, and language that might otherwise be upsetting.

On the fourth day, participants focused on instructional problems. Teachers were asked to describe their main instructional problems and to suggest some specific solutions. Some were thrown off balance when they were asked to ignore such restrictions as money, space and personnel. Think through, they were urged, what they would do if they had all the resources they wanted. How would they reorganize their time? How would they reorganize people? How would they reach the mind of a child in a way that they have not been able to reach it before? How would they help fill the child's life with interest, brightness, feelings of accomplishment, motivation, and ambition?

The final day of the workshop was devoted to reexamining the previous day's brainstorming in the light of the practical realities. How many of the dreamed up solutions were actually possible just through sheer will, change of attitude, and perhaps some reorganization, but at no extra budgetary cost? How many of the ideas could come to life with the aid of newly available Federal funds? How many of these ideas are they really willing and eager to try—with expectation of success—if money, space, and personnel were made available?

By the close of the workshop, the participants had defined 100 problem areas and had generated considerable enthusiasm for attacking them during the coming school year. Officials of this school district expect to use some Title I money on the ideas developed at the workshop. They also plan to submit a proposal for Title I support of another workshop next summer.

A SHORT TEACHER-TRAINING PROGRAM

Teacher training for ghetto schools has to begin with knowledge of the harsh realities of ghetto life. Some of the following pages, particularly those dealing with school-community ties, describe methods for bringing teachers into contact with their pupils' homes. A discussion of teachers' experiences in ghetto homes should be at the heart of a training course but the course should also include a brief survey of anthropology to accustom teachers to objective acceptance of cultural differences.

A training course ought not, however, to confine itself to cultural differences between teacher and pupil. It ought to provide tools for finding common ground. The human relations director of a large Midwestern school system accomplishes this goal with techniques that seem disarmingly simple. He describes them as follows:

"If there is a method that we think the teacher should use in her classroom, we use it in the teacher-training program. If we want to encourage the teacher to divide her class into small discussion groups, we divide into small discussion groups. If we want her to involve children in role playing, we use role playing. If we believe that lecturing is a poor form of education and that stimulating students to search their imagination for answers is good education, then we emphasize asking questions instead of dispensing lectures.

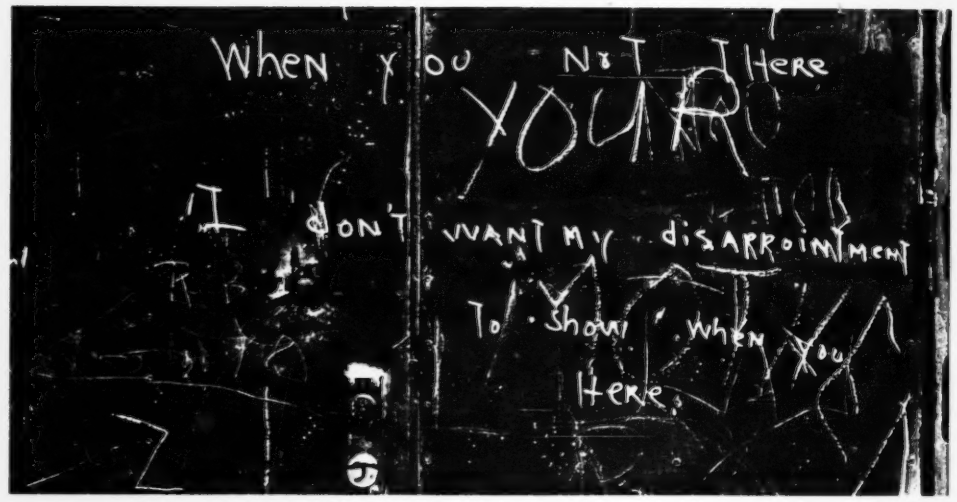
"There is a parallel in the content of our discussions. If we want a teacher to understand a child's motivations, she might begin by better understanding her own. So our training program might begin by asking teachers to divide into pairs to discuss the question, 'What do I want out of life?' After 3 or 4 minutes, the pairs report to the discussion leader who writes their main points on a blackboard. Then the discussion leader points out what great philosophers in many cultures have considered the purpose of life. He might lead up to the sociologist, W. I. Thomas,

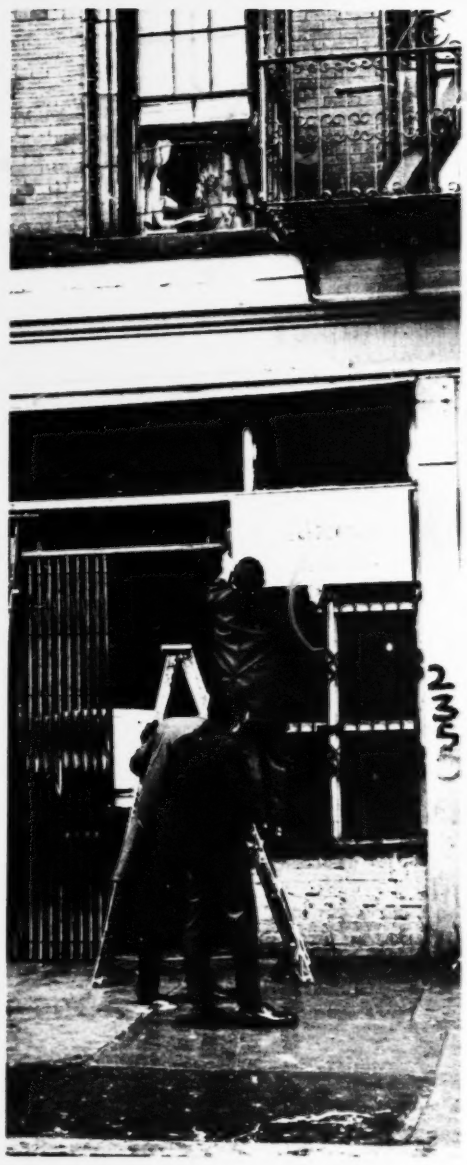
who concluded that everyone has four wishes: recognition, response, security, and new experience. Another eminent thinker has a slightly longer list. He says every one wants power, respect, love, security, well-being, knowledge, skill, and rectitude. Of course it never fails that the blackboard list, based on the class discussions, very closely resembles what the philosophers have always said.

"Then the teachers break into small groups again to examine a new series of questions. What kinds of experiences fill these universal needs? How do you feel when you are denied these feelings? How can you create opportunity for children to have such feelings of satisfaction? And finally, does your answer to the last question match your actual behavior in the classroom?

"If the discussion is a good and honest one, it may result in astonishment. Many participants are stunned to find that they have been insuring their own satisfaction by denying satisfaction of others. They may find they have been enjoying power by stripping children of power, demanding respect by denying respect, and so forth.

"This leads us to discuss a possible classroom activity which some teachers find more difficult than any other, yet the one we feel may be the most beneficial in establishing common ground between teacher and pupil. We call this 'feedback.' A feedback technique that teachers





most use is the commonly known quiz. A teacher gives a lesson in arithmetic, and a quiz gives her a feedback on the success of the lesson. But while the teacher almost always judges her success by the content of lessons she gets across, real feedback may reveal that the most important thing happening in class has nothing to do with content. We demonstrate this by discussing our own class.

"After the first meeting, we ask the teachers what they liked about it and what they disliked. Well, they might say they liked the way the material was presented—by asking questions instead of giving a lecture. Or they might say they liked the use of a blackboard because when they expressed ideas the instructor wrote them down. Then they might say they disliked sitting so long without a coffee break. They disliked it when somebody talked too long without giving others a chance. Then we bring out that the teachers like having this criticism of their own class methods.

"Next, we ask teachers why they couldn't have this kind of feedback discussion in their own classrooms. The answer we most commonly get, after a few embarrassed giggles, is that they are afraid the children will criticize their teaching. At this point I tell them that when I first started using this technique I bought a bottle of aspirin because I was afraid I would develop a headache. That was 20 years ago and I still have most of the bottle. I don't know of any single technique that can be more valuable for making life pleasant in the classroom—or, for that matter, that can better educate teachers about what really happens in teaching.

"Another important area is what we call 'starting with the child.' Every child is unique. He has had experiences that deeply interest him. If we know what really interests each child we can teach him more effectively. How can we dig into the secrets of a child's real interests and strengths? In the primary grades one way to find out is by an intelligent reading of a child's pictures. If we don't tell him what to draw—especially if we don't suggest stereotypes, like a pretty house, flowers, or the rising sun—his pictures may tell us about things that worry him. After he draws pictures of whatever he wants, we ask him to close his eyes and make up a story about it. Sometimes this draws a blank. But sometimes we may get a story about how the baby at home burned himself on the stove, about a mother and father who had a fight, about a big boy down the street who likes to beat up little boys, or whatever else is on the child's mind.

"An even more fascinating kind of projective is to play a record without words, like "Rhapsody in Blue." Then the children are asked to draw a picture that seems like the music. Finally they are asked to write a story about the picture. This produces the most revealing fantasy material for giving teachers clues either to what may disturb children or what may be of real interest to them.

"Another thing we try to get across to teachers is that their children do have language skills to build upon, even if these are not in the same language usage that a school expects. One way to 'start with the child' in building language skill is to ask him to make a 'hiptionary.' Children in small groups enjoy making a list of words in the 'hip' language, with translations into school English. The culmination of this project occurs when the children give teacher a quiz to see how well she knows the 'hip' language. Meanwhile, their translations have helped them go far in learning school English, because their lessons are based on something that really belongs to them.

"The taste of food, lots of different foods, is intensely interesting to every child. This is another reliable place to start building his learning. The teacher asks each child to make a 'yummyology'—a list of foods he likes and a word or phrase describing how they taste. From this, a whole education can be expanded almost indefinitely. The children might discuss and write down where the foods come from, how they got to the stores where they were bought, how mother prepared them, what colors they are, and what other foods are the same

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color. This can be turned into an arithmetic and reading lesson. The children can be given $3 in play money as well as food ads from the newspaper. They could be asked to write down a menu of a supper that can be bought for $3. This discussion can stretch beyond arithmetic, reading, and writing into the values of nutrition.

"I can't think of a more valuable discussion a teacher-training class might have than one inventing new ways to 'start with a child.' One important result would be that teachers would invent a lot of ingenious new ways. But more important, the teachers would find themselves thinking about what 'starting with a child' really means."

HOW SUMMER PROJECTS HELP TEACHERS

What may appear as a side benefit of a school project often turns out to be as important as its main purpose. In 1966, hundreds of school districts, large and small, used Title I funds for a variety of imaginative summer projects. The main purpose of these was to engage disadvantaged children in school activities in a relaxed atmosphere. A major side benefit, however, was that it gave summer employment to teachers.

Thus a summer program, beside its main purpose of enabling students to broaden their intellectual experience, increases a school's power to hold its best teachers. It provides the teacher with paid, professional employment during the nonschool months. At the same time resourceful teachers discover, in an atmosphere of play combined with work, novel ways of keeping their students interested, fresh insight into their students' personalities and, perhaps most important of all, a feeling of success as teachers. These experiences are bound to influence the year-round techniques of the teacher, and provide increased satisfaction in teaching the disadvantaged. Finally, summer programs enable the conscientious teacher to add the important extra something to a child's school life but without adding a crushing burden of extra hours to the normal school week.

For administrators, an important advantage of summer programs is that they enable pupils to continue learning without requiring an increase in staff.

The following are descriptions of two summer projects supported by Title I in 1966:

A school system in the heart of the fruit-picking region of California enabled 60 deprived children to spend 10 days touring the scenic, scientific, historical, and industrial wonders of California. The children, fifth, sixth, and seventh graders, rode in school buses which were followed by a cooking truck. The trip was preceded by 2 weeks of research and planning in which students participated. By the time the bus was ready to leave, the children were breathless with expectation. After the trip, their enthusiasm was channeled into a week of discussion, relating what they had seen to what they study in school.

A Minnesota city conducted a residential summer camp for 80 junior high schoolers—two 2-week sessions of 40 students each—to arouse their interest in learning a foreign language. The school years immediately ahead of these students would require them to learn a foreign language, yet their backgrounds in impoverished communities hardly provided a stimulus. At camp, the youngsters witnessed sports of many countries, conversed in their selected foreign language during mealtimes and saw foreign language films—all this in addition to class instruction.

A SHORTCUT TO TEACHER RECRUITMENT

Tens of thousands of college graduates, many of them women whose children have all entered school, would eagerly become teachers if colleges more readily accepted their previously earned credits and if certification laws were more flexible in course requirements. Hardly anyone would disagree that many college-graduate mothers could walk into classrooms tomorrow and be superb teachers.

California recently revised its requirements for a teaching credential. This change permitted the public schools of a sizable city to

launch a recruitment program which has proved successful. Under it an acceptable applicant holding a bachelor of arts degree observes classes as a student teacher in a 6-week summer session of a neighborhood school and simultaneously takes college courses in the same school. In the fall the trainee, called an intern, takes full charge of a classroom and continues courses in the evening, still at the school where he teaches. Six interns are supervised by one master teacher who has no other teaching duties.

The intern, while teaching on a provisional credential, may become fully certified after one or two semesters of work, or he may take up to 7 years for completing requirements. From the day of taking charge of a classroom the intern is paid at the rate of five-sixths of the regular pay of the beginning teacher. Throughout the school year, interns participate in inservice seminars in addition to pursuing their college courses.

TEACHERS ON A PART-TIME SCHEDULE

Many ex-teachers who have left the classroom to become housewives and mothers are reluctant to go back to work on a full-time schedule at the sacrifice of attention to their own children and home. Some schools, experimenting with half-day employment of teachers for kindergarten and preschool classes, have been surprised at the number of qualified persons who applied for jobs after refusing full-time offers. Kindergarten and preschool, of course, are especially well-suited for half-time employment since the pupils themselves usually come to school only for half days. A school having both morning and afternoon kindergartens may have a far easier time staffing a room with two half-time teachers than with a single full-time one.

Part-time employment of teachers for elementary and secondary grades is rare. Some administrators, however, are beginning to wonder why. One superintendent in a rapidly growing city in the South has worked out a plan for accommodating the personal schedules of qualified housewives. According to this plan, mothers will be employed on a slighty reduced schedule—9:30 a.m. to 2:30 p.m.—enabling them to see their own children off to school in the morning and to return home in time to receive their children in the afternoon.

For the first half hour in the morning, the mothers' classes will be divided among other rooms. Lesson schedules for all rooms will be rearranged so that the first half hour is devoted to singing of songs, showing filmstrips and motion pictures, and taking attendance—activities not requiring a formal teacher-pupil relationship. The last half hour of the day will be chiefly recreational, preferably outdoors. In two of the experimental rooms, classes will not be divided among other teachers, but will be in charge of teacher aides at the beginning and end of the day. According to the superintendent, whichever plan works out better will become a permanent practice of his schools until the present teacher shortage is over.

"Sure, either of these new plans will involve some inconveniences," says the superintendent. "But it seems to me far better to submit children to a minor inconvenience for two half-hours a day than to have them spend all of their school time under the handicap of being in classes too large for effective education."

A MASTER TEACHER AND STUDENT TEACHER PRACTICUM

A university in the Northwest developed a teacher training program that brings individual student teachers into an intimate working relationship with classroom teachers for long periods. In his first year the student, who is assigned to a teacher as a "cadet," does many of the routine tasks necessary to keep a classroom functioning smoothly. In his second year the student is reassigned to the teacher to participate in professional planning and in a team teaching group. Instead of being limited by usual student-teaching assignments, the student shares responsibility for every phase of the children's school program

and also has the benefit of close observation and counsel by a master teacher. The roles of team members are rotated so that at one time or another the student teacher is lecturer, discussion leader, counselor, or reference librarian.

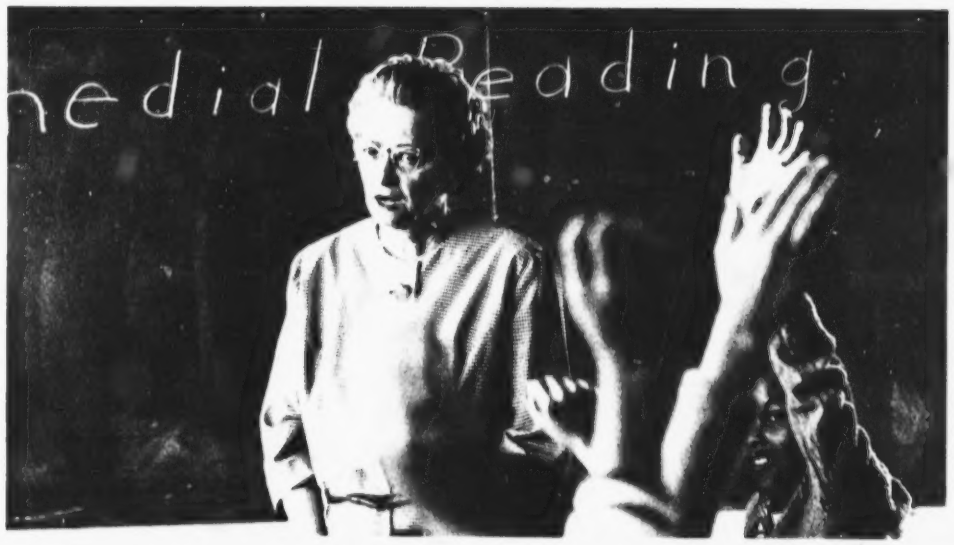
In a third year of his experience in the same school the student, now called an intern, becomes a paid member of the school faculty and carries a diversified, if still somewhat reduced load which enables him to participate in problem-oriented seminars with experienced teachers and university staff.

TEACHING REMEDIAL READING TO SUBJECT SPECIALISTS

Junior and senior high school teachers tend to think of themselves as subject-matter specialists. Yet, because of a wide range of reading ability among their students, they find they must be reading teachers, too.

In an Ohio city, 30 teachers spent a summer in a Title I remedial reading laboratory program to learn how to help slow readers deal with regular subject-matter assignments. The teachers spent 2 hours daily with a total of 400 youngsters in need of reading help.

In a week of orientation preceding the program the teachers heard lectures on the problems of slow readers, learned how to operate equipment designed to improve reading skills, and prepared word wheels and phonics charts. After



the program started, they worked with small groups of slow readers—no more than 10 to a group. The youngsters—all were at least a year behind in reading but capable of doing better—attended the sessions voluntarily.

The hope was that the teachers, once they discovered how reading instruction could be applied in history, social science, English, or science, would pass their new skills along to their colleagues.

A TEACHERS' SEMINAR FOR MUTUAL SUPPORT

Not long ago a Pennsylvania college sent a group of student teachers to a nearby city, where they were assigned to the poverty ghetto. The students, all women, lived together in an apartment house. After a semester of student teaching, 33 out of 35 of the students decided not only to seek teaching jobs but to seek them in areas of urban poverty.

This fact confirms a widespread allegation that many schools of education are not properly preparing students for teaching the disadvantaged. When these young women returned to their college for summary discussions with their professor, they began to critcize his methods, which, they declared, wouldn't work out in ghetto schools. Fortunately the professor was young and flexible; he stopped talking and began to listen.

What had happened to the girls to give them such a positive view of teaching the disadvantaged?

"Because we all lived together," one student teacher explains, "we spent our evenings in each other's rooms or in the coffeeshop talking about what happened that day. When one of us mentioned a problem, another would say, 'The same thing happened in my class.' Then still another would say, 'That happened in my room, too, but I tried doing such-and-such and it really worked.' It's funny how you don't get discouraged when you find that others have the same problems you have, and especially when someone comes up with an answer. Then you can't wait to try it yourself the next day. Before the semester was over, we all really got the feeling that we were learning something about how to make these kids like school. We're supposed to make them feel success. But the thing that really drove us is that we were feeling success."

Having observed the discouragement of older teachers, the young women resolved to organize seminars of their own in the schools where they would be employed after graduation. When the teacher quoted above went to work in the ghetto of an Eastern city, she convinced three other newly employed teachers in her school to get together one evening a week for an exchange of experiences. They soon discovered that an art teacher in their school, a veteran of many years' experience, was especially successful in stirring the enthusiasm of pupils and invited her to join the group. As the group found other enthusiastic and successful teachers, old or new—and often they are concealed behind classroom walls—it invited them too. Soon, the informal seminar acquired a special status. Other teachers made discreet overtures, hoping to be invited.

While the spontaneity and informality of this "seminar" might be hard to duplicate, it demonstrates the value of a simple exchange of ideas as a method of continuing in-service training of the most dedicated teachers.

III

AIDES FOR TEACHERS

THE TEACHER AIDE—PART OF A TEACHING TEAM

In the past several years there has been an enormous growth in employment of nonprofessional aides to classroom teachers. In some places aides' duties are as simple as serving as monitors in the lunchroom; in other places, as important as grading papers or taking part in the instructional process. Many believe that in schools in disadvantaged areas aides can do much to bridge the gap between neighborhood and school, that they can give

children the feeling that school is part of a familiar world; and that they impart to neighborhood mothers a more direct knowledge of what really goes on inside the schoolhouse.

But let's take the simplest and most direct purpose supposedly served by aides. Do they really free a teacher's time to teach? Or does supervising them make more trouble than it's worth? This has been a subject of emotional debate ever since aides were first admitted through the schoolhouse door.

One answer was produced a few years ago when Charles B. Park of Central Michigan College announced the results of a 5-year study in 25 Michigan public schools. In this extensive investigation, teachers' activities were actually measured by a stopwatch for long periods before and after aides joined the staff. In a 2-year period during which aides were employed, teachers had slashed the percentages of time they devoted to routine duties: Correcting papers was reduced by 89 percent; enforcing discipline, 36 percent; taking attendance, 76 percent; preparing reports, 25 percent; supervising children moving between classes, 61 percent; monitoring written lessons, 83 percent.

What did teachers do with all that new-found time? They increased time spent on lesson preparation by 105 percent; recitation, 57 percent; preparation of homework assignments, 20 percent; moving about the classroom, desk to desk for individual coaching, 27 percent.

As Professor Stanley L. Clement recently wrote: "We strive to improve the quality of preparation for the teaching profession, yet we ask teachers to perform duties far beneath their level of training . . . . We advocate higher teacher salaries, yet assign our able teachers to tasks that could be done by people with far less ability . . . . We seek to raise the professional status of teachers yet keep them performing duties hardly professional . . . . We strive for good teaching morale, yet we keep teachers dissatisfied by requiring that they perform duties which they dislike (but others might enjoy doing). We want teachers to be creative—to experiment, to improve—yet we keep them bored by clerical tasks . . . . It is only common sense to place people at the level of their best talent."

If almost all teachers wish they had smaller classes, is it valid to consider aides as a means of reducing a teacher-student ratio? Some years ago Dr. James B. Conant proposed that high school English teachers be assigned no more than 100 students in all their classes. A superintendent in a big Midwest city replied, "It would cost my city an additional $2 million a year. If I had the $2 million, I couldn't get the teachers. And if, by some miracle, I could get the teachers, I couldn't get the classrooms. What's the next best thing?"

At that time Dr. Paul B. Diederich was becoming nationally known for preaching that the "next best thing" was employment of college-educated housewives as lay readers of student papers. "Now after a 6-year experience with this program," Dr. Diederich recently wrote, "I am beginning to believe that it is a better thing: That the team solution is superior to the individual solution."

The paid aides become a regular part of a school staff. They generally are on duty from opening to closing of the school, sometimes beyond closing. In employing them, a school makes commitments due any employee, sets aside an appropriate portion of its budget for salary and other benefits and promises a certain degree of job security. The school can require of a teacher aide what it requires from any employee, a high degree of responsibility to group discipline, punctuality, regular attendance, and sudden changes of responsibility in emergencies.

The following are examples of how aides have been used successfully in different grade levels and for various purposes.

HOME-VISITING AIDES

A Midwestern principal, a pioneer in the use of aides in his large industrial city, says that of all the valuable things an aide might do in stretching the arms of teachers,

none compares with the service of a home-visiting aide.

His school is in a neighborhood densely packed with families on welfare. Mothers are so burdened with the problems of survival that they have little awareness of the support that their children need to make a success of school.

Almost every contact between school and home has been a disaster of communication. One day a second-grade girl appeared in school after 3 days of absence. She had no note from her mother, who was illiterate. The teacher asked the child if she had been sick. The child said no. The teacher scolded her and sent a sharp note home pointing out the consequences of a neglectful attitude toward schooling. The mother, who couldn't read the note, correctly assumed that the communication, like all others she had received from the school, was hostile. The truth was that the little girl's baby sister had fallen against the stove a few days earlier and died of severe burns.

"This kind of thing isn't likely to happen in our school any more," says the principal, "if the aide is doing her job and if the teacher has learned the proper way to work with the aides. The home-visiting aide is an intelligent woman from the neighborhood, probably a mother herself. She has an easy rapport with the poor because she's been poor. She probably has a high school diploma. But the main thing is that she has sympathy with the situation of both school and parent; she's not timid; and she knows her way around the neighborhood and the public agencies. At least, that's the ideal we look for.

"When a kid is identified as an absence problem, the teacher and aide don't set as their first goal dragging the kid back to class. Their first goal is to find out what his problem is. If his sister didn't fall against the stove, maybe the soles fell off his shoes. We have plenty of sources for getting new shoes if we can just find out which kid needs them."

He describes the school problem: "In school, we give eye examinations. When a child needs glasses, we inform the mother. A few days later, maybe he still has no glasses. We send a second note home to mother. Still no glasses. The problem is not that a family can't afford to buy eye glasses. If they're on welfare, the welfare department will supply them. If they're not on welfare but very poor, there are clinics and charity agencies to supply them. But the mother doesn't always know this. Sometimes she doesn't understand our note and she never gives it to the welfare worker.

"That's where the home-visiting aide comes in. If she knows the kid needs glasses and the mother didn't arrange for them, the first question the aide looks into is why. She brings the mother together with the welfare worker or the clinic or you-name-it, and first thing you know, the kid's wearing specs and he may have the first chance he has ever had to learn to read.

"Since we've had home-visiting aides, we can call parents' meetings for the first time and expect them to mean something. First of all, the aide can go around among parents and ask them to come to school, not for a bawling-out, but to find out what Johnny does there all day, maybe even to find out how well Johnny is doing. Not all the parents come, but the most lively ones do. So now we have a chain of communication to spread word, from one language to another, of what school is all about. The teacher can express himself to the aide in school language. The aide, who is bilingual, can pass the word to parents in the language of the poverty stricken neighborhood and home. Even if a message only gets to the liveliest of parents, at least it has penetrated into the neighborhood and will spread around from there. And don't think that the process doesn't happen in the other direction, too. As soon as the parents begin to understand through an aide what school is all about, the teachers are bound to start learning what life in the neighborhood is all about.

"What do we want to tell at parents' meetings? Simple things. Many of these parents never had the experience of homework. So they don't know that it is important

to turn off a TV set when a kid tries to study. It may never have occurred to them that a family argument taking place when a kid has his book open may be the end of his studying. From there, we can move to more sophisticated things. If a family is large and its apartment is small, we can tell a mother how much she can help her child by bringing him to a library to do his homework. Nobody has ever told this mother that she can help her child, that she can really be an instrument for his school success. It's the greatest honor you can pay her.

"Of course, if you are going to do this, you have to make sure the librarian isn't going to throw the child out into the street because he is using schoolbooks instead of library books. This is another arrangement that teacher and aide, supported by their principal, can make with their neighborhood public library. Then, if you really want to get sophisticated, you can keep your school open afternoons and evenings, so that aides, paid or volunteer, can coordinate a corps of volunteer tutors to do homework with children.

"There is almost no end to the basic tasks a home-visiting aide can help a school accomplish—but which the school, when isolated, can't do by itself. The biggest thing the aide can do is so simple that some people are still shocked by its need. The aide can teach a mother, just through a friendly talk,

that she would be doing the greatest thing in the world for her child by reading him a story at bedtime. If there is no book around the house, let her read from the back of a cereal box. If the mother can't read, that's still all right. Let the child read to mother. After all, the purpose here isn't to have a formal exercise in remedial reading. The simple purpose is, first, to develop human contact between parent and child—a contact which this child has had too little of; and, second, to introduce into the kid's life the idea that the printed word can provide a warm way through which two human beings communicate. When a child finds out that reading and writing are really a way in which human beings can talk about interesting things with each other, your reading problems are going to crumble and your reading grade levels are going to soar.

"Teaching kids to read is more than a technique of pedagogy. Our teachers have the techniques and are ready to use them. They can really begin to use them now that they have home-visiting aides who can help create the simple out-of-school circumstances that will make it possible for a child to open his mind to learning.

"There is one more thing we've learned about home-visiting aides. The aide is usually a neighbor whom the child may have seen ever since he was old enough to play on the sidewalk. If he hasn't

known her personally, the child senses that she is just like the neighbors he has known. Now for the first time a child sees 'one of our kind' around the schoolhouse, talking to principal, talking to teacher, acting as a school official. After school, the child sees the aide out in the neighborhood, climbing the steps of tenements, talking to parents, greeting children in the street, this time in the role of a sympathetic neighbor. Just seeing her face provides a link between school and home, making each a little less alien to the other, making one a little more part of the other. I don't know how a teacher can accomplish this, and certainly not a principal. But I do know that teachers and principals are strengthened in doing their professional jobs when this intangible link between school and home has somehow been established."

TRAINING OF CHILD-CARE AIDES

In the last 2 years Project Head Start has stimulated a national interest in preschool training and created a need for thousands of adults with at least a minimum of training in the care and mental stimulation of young children. Until recently nursery schools offered few opportunities for employment; they were mainly a luxury of the upper middle class.

Now that preschool education has become an urgent national concern, fully qualified professionals cannot be trained fast enough to keep up with the need. Therefore, there is little doubt that subprofessional aides, working under the direction of professionals, have an essential part to play in the preschool classroom. There is hardly any standard practice to date, unfortunately, on the training of aides. Furthermore, the staffing of preschool classes is often blocked by antiquated laws requiring specific refinements of training.

School systems frustrated by this problem today might profit by the odd experience a junior college had a few years ago when it set out to accomplish a more limited purpose. It is a useful case study in avoiding complication, sidestepping annoying formalities, and getting the job done.

A psychology professor went to the executive dean of the city's junior college system and proposed a 2-year program to train nursery school therapists for emotionally disturbed children. These aides would help not only in handling materials, keeping records, and ushering children about but also in leading them in games and simple activities. Better still, they would perhaps become friends with the children and draw them out, following the instructions of, say, a psychiatric social worker or psychologist.

The dean liked the idea. But his staff of faculty psychologists and social workers balked. They were scared by use of the word "therapists."

"The people on my side," recalls the professor, "decided to shop for different names. Each name suggested cooled the fears of some but raised objections from others. Finally we thought of 'child-care aide,' which didn't scare anybody. That was great progress and it only took 2 years. But, in the meantime, the executive dean had decided to drop the courses. Nothing happened until a year or so later when he got a better job elsewhere.

"As soon as a new executive dean arrived, I gave him a plan for a course for child-care aides. He liked it and recommended that we immediately apply somewhere for a grant. When we had previously decided to train nurses in our junior college system, we needed a grant. It took a year and a half to prepare a proposal. We got the grant and then spent another year and a half dealing with various nursing associations to arrange the standards and training. Now, after 4 years, we were training only 40 nurses. So, this time I decided to try a different way.

"I went to all of the eight junior colleges, spoke to the deans in charge, and told them that their executive dean had approved this project and that we should start implementing it. Three of the eight were interested, but we found nobody on their staffs qualified to organize or give courses for child-care aides. In all the colleges the person who seemed most interested was an English teacher, but a few

psychologists and art and music teachers also wanted to go along. I told them that the State Department of Child Welfare had some excellent people who might help and that the nursery school experts could be brought in to talk about basic curriculum.

"An expert came down to inform us of the legal requirements we would have to meet in setting up a nursery school laboratory—what size of room and playground, how many toilets, how doors must swing, etc. After she had walked through our college and found no room suitable, she told us of a nursery school close at hand that would be suitable as our training center.

"We sent a letter to every nursery school in the city inviting them to meetings to discuss what ought to be in our training program. Many came. We divided people into small groups and asked them to list problems they had observed in nursery schools and things they would like to learn if they were to take our course. The problems they came up with were simple and real: How do you deal with a temper tantrum in a 3-year-old? How do you stop children from fighting? How do you teach art? How do you deal with belligerent parents? How can you introduce some formal education into a nursery school when the law says that a nursery is not an educational institution because nursery teachers are not certified teachers?

"With these questions in mind, we outlined a 10-week course. Then we took practical steps, like asking an outstanding art teacher to teach a class on teaching art to children. She asked, 'Should I give a lecture?' We said, 'No, we want each student in the class to act as if he were a 4-year-old, and you to act as if you were their nursery teacher.' The class had two lessons in making group murals by pressing clay or potatoes into paint, then stamping their shapes on the mural."

One of the experts engaged to teach in the first course, a holder of a doctoral degree in child development, soon became administrator of the program to train child-care aides. It is now one of the largest specialized programs in a community college anywhere.

LAY READERS

An Ohio city employs 24 aides for high school English teachers at $1.50 per hour for an annual cost of about $7,500. Generally, one aide divides her time between two teachers. She checks compositions for errors in spelling, capitalization, punctuation, sentence structure, and word usage. She may indicate need for improved organization, diction, transition, and similar techniques of better writing. In some cases, she recommends a grade for the content of a paper. If papers are to be revised based on a teacher's review and comments, the aides may check the revision for compliance with the teacher's suggestions. Occasionally, the aides also grade objective tests, vocabulary papers, and routine written drills.

Aides must have a college degree with, preferably, a major in English. They are given a standardized test for language proficiency. In an oral interview, the main qualities sought are a lively interest in writing and an understanding of ways of developing pupils' skill in and appreciation of good writing.

RECRUITING AND TRAINING AIDES

A Maryland county recruited and trained 42 aides for 25 elementary schools in a poverty district. When the county superintendent opened his recruitment campaign by releasing announcements to the local newspaper and radio station, he was overwhelmed with applications.

Each applicant was interviewed by a principal and the district director of personnel. The 42 aides were chosen for their demonstrated interest in children and previous experience with juvenile groups—Boy and Girl Scouts, 4–H Clubs, YMCA, YWCA, or experience as a parent.

The University of Maryland joined local school officials in conducting a 9-day inservice training program for the aides. Through this program the aides learned something of the organization and policies of the school district and the broad purposes of elementary education.

In addition, they attended classes—conducted by master teachers—which dealt with techniques of teaching spelling and reading, the art of storytelling, the enjoyment of poetry, a review of arithmetic, and the use of an elementary school library. Experts gave them instruction in running projectors and other devices, making transparencies, keeping records of loaned equipment, and cutting stencils.

The instruction focused on handwriting. Why handwriting? In grades one and two, children spell out their words with printed letters; in grade three, they shift to cursive writing—a shift which troubles many children. By helping them individually, a trained aide can ease the transition.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE LABORATORY AIDES

A school in Maryland found that a foreign language laboratory is an especially good place for an aide to relieve a teacher from a sizable amount of nonteaching duty.

Besides assisting the instructor in recording audio materials, the aide keeps an inventory of materials and equipment and periodically checks and cleans the rollers and recording heads of tape recorders. Between visits of students, the aide checks machines for proper volume and sound quality, for condition of wires, and for loose screws in knobs, microphones, and headsets. She makes sure that master recordings are filed in proper sequence. She

also sets up and operates projection equipment and phonographs.

The aide should have a background of training in one or more foreign languages in order to assist individuals in small groups in conversations and drill.

TYPICAL DUTIES OF AIDES

The following list of effective uses of aides for routine tasks is compiled from experiences of many schools. Many duties in this composite list will not be applicable to all-grade levels.

1. Taking attendance and keeping routine records.
2. Collecting funds for various purposes and keeping accounts.
3. Correcting objective tests and making up lists and charts for the teacher showing pupil performance.
4. Supervising playground activities.
5. Supervising the lunchroom.
6. Helping children in the primary grades with their clothes.
7. Supervising children in the elementary grades during lavatory periods.
8. Checking out library books.
9. Caring for and operating audiovisual equipment.
10. Supervising the distribution of milk.
11. Typing and duplicating, answering the telephone, and running errands to the office.
12. Filing work in children's folders.
13. Mending books.
14. Making arrangements for field trips.
15. Assisting children in construction of bulletin boards, displays, and projects.
16. Escorting children to the nurse.
17. Supervising quiet activities and rest period.
18. Listening to and sharing thoughts with children who need to talk to an adult.

Some school districts have had remarkable success in assigning to aides more complex tasks than those listed above. In an elementary school in the Southwest, for example, aides work directly with students in a wide variety of situations: reading stories aloud; listening to children explain their homework, their plans for a new project, or their interests in a favorite subject; helping children find books and reference materials.

Occasionally, an aide may be particularly gifted in a subject or an art. For example, a part-time aide was able to provide piano accompaniments that would otherwise have been unavailable. A retired leatherworker was put in charge of a program in leathercrafts.

Some States restrict use of noncertified persons in the classroom. Administrators in many States, however, are relaxing their interpretation of old regulations or pressing for the adoption of new ones. In doing so, they are acknowledging the successful use of auxiliary staff under the supervision of professional faculty members.

Meanwhile, professional organizations are beginning to review old definitions of the role of teacher. A question asked is: Must a teacher continue to be the sole direct instrument of instruction, or is there a valid new role for the teacher as the manager of an instructional system that makes use of other people as well as materials? In the schools of tomorrow, may the phrase "teacher and his staff" become as common as today's term, "teacher and his students?"

IV

SCHOOL VOLUNTEERS

VOLUNTEERS—AN ABLE AND WILLING RESOURCE

A new source of help similar to the teaching aide program has recently become available to the teacher—the volunteer program. This new program enables a school to call upon the wide variety of specialized abilities and talents which are available in every community and which many citizens are eager to contribute to schools and children.

Because the volunteer is not paid, he is not usually required to accept the obligations and discipline that are required of aides or teachers. He is seldom on the job every day; 2 or 3 half-days a week is the usual schedule. The irregular schedule and the kinds of service he gives prevent his developing the same close working relationship with a teacher or an administrator as a paid aide develops.

The two kinds of programs, aides and volunteers, are by no means contradictory. In many schools one is a valuable supplement to the other. The following are examples of effective uses of school volunteers.

A VERSATILE VOLUNTEER PROGRAM

A West Coast city, having a major university as well as a large community of the poor, has developed an outstanding program of volunteer work in the schools. More than 300 volunteers—200 university students and more than 100 mothers—contribute more than 20,000 hours a school year by working 2 or more half-days a week.

Because of the high educational level of the volunteers, many are especially qualified to help in direct instruction in science, math, English, foreign languages, communicative arts, reading, storytelling, and special programs for the mentally retarded, aphasic, and blind.

In addition to providing this direct help to the classroom teacher, the volunteer program has launched a variety of special projects so useful that other schools may wish to duplicate them. By combining them into a comprehensive program, a school could change its entire temper.

A Homework Center

Every Tuesday and Thursday afternoon from 3:00 to 4:30, about 40 pupils who want help in homework gather in a school cafeteria where they join more than a dozen volunteer tutors specially qualified in math, English, social studies, and foreign languages.

The volunteer in charge of the center is a retired teacher, and many of the tutors are university students, young enough to establish an informal rapport with students. The ratio of tutors to pupils is low enough and the organization flexible enough to enable a pupil with a special problem to get an adult's undivided attention, perhaps for the first time in his life. For example, one seventh-grade boy had recently arrived with his family from Hong Kong. His language difference, added to a personal shyness, at first kept him away from the homework center. When he did come, he was taken over by a university student also of oriental birth who, guided by his own memories as a newly arrived student, could help the boy overcome his feelings of strangeness with a new language in a new land. (The same university student on other afternoons is volunteer adviser of a ham radio club at another school.)

A Paperback Bookstore

In one school volunteers borrowed space from the cafeteria and funds from the PTA to start a store of low-cost paperback books. Pupils act as clerks; a volunteer supervises and maintains inventory. From the outset, inventory has been more of a problem than anyone anticipated—on the store's opening day almost the entire stock was sold out. Within a year volunteers in two other schools had started bookstores.

Noontime Concert Series

An industrious and music-minded volunteer in a junior high school is responsible for launching a weekly concert that lasts through three lunch periods. The volunteer in charge started the series with a 40-piece baroque orchestra from a city high school, then followed it with what seemed an endless supply of vocal and instrumental talent from all parts of the community. Student audiences numbered 250 to 300 per concert. Volunteers are also providing piano accompaniment for classroom singing and special musical programs.

Afterschool Clubs

Volunteers took the initiative in forming extracurricular clubs at an elementary school: Clubs for math, science, and drama, and two art groups. Though they started in a school where deprivation was a

characteristic of the pupils, an ingenious volunteer got the idea of conducting meetings alternately at this school and at an elementary school in an affluent neighborhood. Pupils of both schools were invited to join and get to know one another through their club interests. The plan has been so successful that parents from the affluent neighborhood have formed a volunteer program of their own.

Systemwide Services

Besides services to individual schools, involving direct contact with teachers and children, the volunteer program provides services for the whole school system. They include:

Community Resources: Speakers, exhibits, and other resources for special presentations are provided upon request of a teacher or principal. In one week, for example, a geologist, an airline navigator, a speaker on Mexico, a physicist, and a cellist were brought into elementary school classes to give talks and demonstrations.

Field trip guide: A booklet containing information about 50 tours that classes might take in the surrounding region is periodically updated. For example, under the category "Industry, Business, and Farming," tours include bakeries; coffee, sugar, and salt companies; a dairy farm; and a petshop. The "Transportation and Communication" section lists tours of newspapers, a shipping line, a seaport, and an airport. Each listing sets forth the times when visits can be made, the total time needed, the maximum number of children that can be accommodated, the grade levels for which the trip is suitable, and other pertinent information.

Clipping service: Articles and pictures are gathered and filed for use by teachers and other staff members.

Central library service: Assistance is given with the processing of books in the central library.

Typing and mimeographing: Curriculum materials, class newspapers, staff notices, and form letters are typed or mimeographed.

Special services: Short-term manpower for special needs is supplied.

All the groups of volunteers—those in each school as well as those providing citywide services—are self-operating under the direction of a volunteer coordinator. The coordinators are led by a director, having full professional status on the superintendent's staff. He and his secretary are paid by a grant of less than $15,000 from a local foundation. Important functions of the director are to insure that volunteer work is of value to the schools and to minimize new administrative demands upon the superintendent and school principals.

VOLUNTEERS FOR A READING PROGRAM

In an Eastern city hundreds of volunteers are engaged in an individual reading program, a project hardly possible if it had to depend upon the use of paid professional staff.

Applicants for the service are carefully screened; each one is interviewed and his references studied. Those selected are required to attend an orientation program and afterward to meet with the program director for a second interview. They serve a minimum of 3 hours a day, 2 days a week. In addition they attend inservice lectures and take part in discussions led by specialists in reading.

A volunteer meets with a child for 45 minutes twice a week in a room set aside for the program. During the sessions he tries to cultivate a relaxed personal relationship with the child based on the child's own interests. Sometimes the volunteer reads stories to him, and sometimes they read aloud together. They talk about the stories and other things that might open new horizons for the child.

When the child indicates interest in subject material, the volunteer tries to find simple books on the subject that the child may take home. He exercises the child in drill material furnished by his regular classroom teacher. He also keeps a journal of his observations of each child, which becomes a source of information for the teacher as well as a record of progress for the volunteer.

CONVERSATIONAL ENGLISH

In the same city volunteers have organized an unusual group to help children from non-English-speaking families learn to converse in English. This is an essential preparation for their learning to read and write in English.

The techniques used by the volunteers are oral and visual; they deal in no way with the written word. In games based on physical exercise, for example, a volunteer will walk and run and then identify each activity with the words "walk" and "run." The child has no difficulty assigning the newly learned word to the familiar activity. By pointing a finger, the volunteer demonstrates the meaning of a simple sentence—"I walk; you walk." Through pictures, he conveys familiar nouns: house, bread, man, car, pencil, apple. Through the idea of color charts the child rapidly learns the English names of colors which he already knows in his parents' tongue. After a few sessions many children find the grouping of words a fascinating and rewarding game: "red car," "yellow house," "man runs," "my pencil," "pencil writes." Their progress from single words to phrases to complex, spontaneous conversation is astonishingly rapid.

Usually, volunteers work with two children at a time, meeting them twice a week for 40 minutes a period. On alternate days the children meet with another volunteer. This helps them get accustomed to different speech patterns. The pairs of children are carefully m a t c h e d—and sometimes repaired—according to their language level and personality. Sometimes, when it seems advantageous, a volunteer meets with a single child.

Volunteers chosen for this program are expected to have patience and warmth. They are screened for good enunciation without marked regional or foreign accent. They need no previous language training, not even a working knowledge of a foreign language.

Before beginning work, the volunteers take a training course of four 2-hour sessions and spend several hours observing trained volunteers at work. Their training continues on the job through the guidance of an experienced volunteer chairman, who keeps a close watch on the work of new volunteers. Daily conferences with teachers provide an opportunity to review methods, regroup children, and discuss new teaching tools.

Children are screened for the program almost as carefully as volunteers. The goal is a working familiarity with English words and sentences. A child is not admitted if his only problem is a foreign accent. He is considered in need of the program if he speaks no English or speaks English haltingly or in stereotyped phrases.

VOLUNTEER TEENAGERS FOR LIBRARIES

A city on the shore of the Great Lakes has found special advantage in recruiting college students and teenagers for volunteer work in libraries. Its aim is not only to lighten the load of librarians but also to help make libraries more useful and inviting to disadvantaged students.

The large number of extra man-hours provided by volunteers enables school libraries to add daytime programs and to stay open during the evening. For little children, teenagers conduct story-telling and storyreading sessions. To many of these children, a library previously represented an alien place where a severe authority—a librarian instead of a teacher—presided, sometimes appearing more interested in enforcing regulations than in spreading the joy of stories. With the informal teenagers present, children find the friendly atmosphere of stories and books far preferable to a home atmosphere of crying babies, cooking odors, insufficient light, and a blaring television set.

Older children in junior high and high school have also found an inviting atmosphere in a library manned by visiting teenagers. These older students appear at ease in getting individual help in practical problems: how to decide what books to read, how to expand a bibliography by proper use of a card

index, how to find books on library shelves, and how to use standard reference volumes.

VOLUNTEERS AS ROLE MODELS

There is a growing feeling among educators and psychologists that the high percentage of broken homes among the poor often leaves children of poverty with little understanding of what adults do in the world of work and in a normal home environment. How is a child to know that he is expected to work for a living some day, and that schooling leads to employment skills, if he has never had the simple experience of seeing a man get up in the morning to go to a job or of having an adult in his family bring home a weekly paycheck? Many experts believe that the absence of self-supporting males in the lives of these children is one of the critical ingredients of their deprivation. Whether the sex distinction is the critical factor or not, the child has little contact with self-supporting adults. His observation is confined to mothers, enslaved by too many domestic chores, and to socially disoriented males, hanging around on the sidewalks.

To combat this special form of deprivation, volunteers have been helpful in a variety of imaginative ways. Sometimes their best use is not to teach but just to be, merely presenting themselves before children to play with them, talk with them, enjoy them, and be enjoyed by them. The hope is that their out-

look and behavior will rub off on the rapidly forming attitudes of growing children. In one city a preschool project made a special effort to enlist volunteer fathers to work with certified teachers in class play, storytelling, and conversation. In another city adult men, especially Negroes in predominantly Negro neighborhoods, were recruited as volunteer counselors, tutors, and companions for children in elementary and high school grades. Some were highly educated as lawyers, doctors, and social workers; others were in the medium range of occupational achievement—postal clerks, store employees, service technicians, and the like. The important thing was that they were "making it." Children could hardly fail to absorb at least a trace of their attitudes of discipline and aspiration.

A most effective and direct use of adult role models was made by a Midwestern city with a large and especially oppressive Negro ghetto. An assistant superintendent in charge of this district organized a road show of 17 young Negroes, each trained in a skilled job, but not so advanced that a 12-year-old slum child could not imagine doing the same. The road show traveled from school to school, appearing before parents and pupils. A young principal of the district describes the meetings:

"We tell the parents, 'Now we've been saying that if your child works hard in school it will pay off in the long run. We're going to try to show you.' The audience is skeptical. Whatever you say, they'll shake their heads for an hour and say 'Yessir, that's right,' the way they've learned to do when white people talk to them, but you're not communicating. Then we bring in each of these 17 people, start interviewing them before the crowd, and a change takes place.

" 'Where do you work?'

" 'So-and-So Aircraft.'

" 'They make space capsules.'

"The young fellow illustrates on a blackboard what space capsules are and how he helps design them. We ask if he needs any training for such work. He tells about the schooling he had. Then we ask: 'Did you get that kind of job the first time you went somewhere to apply for one?' You can hear the hall freeze with attention. He says, 'No. But I knew I was properly trained and qualified. I knew there was a place for me somewhere and I found it at So-and-So Aircraft.'

"Most of the adults in that hall have never heard a young Negro from their own neighborhood say anything like that before—because for the most part it was never true before. Next we bring on a computer programer who not only has a good job but recently won an award as the outstanding government employee in this area.

"The one who really shakes the people up is a woman who's an advertising artist for a milk company. We ask her, 'How many children were in your family?' She says, 'Nine.' You feel a slight tremble in the hall from an excuse caving in. Then she adds that she was the oldest and had to look after all the others. Another excuse hits the ground. She says, 'I remember I had two dresses. While I wore one, I washed and dried the other one for school next day.' You can't imagine the impact on the people when she tells that. That's the story of every woman in the hall."

SENIOR CITIZENS—A SPECIAL VOLUNTEER RESOURCE

In an extraordinarily successful volunteer program involving almost 1,500 lay persons in a Midwestern industrial city, it has been discovered that elderly people who are young of mind, particularly among the retired, have a special contribution to make. Retired people often miss practicing their work skills as much as children are frustrated by the lack of them. Thus a purpose for each is served by bringing together those who have left the world of work and those who have not yet entered it.

The kind of work hardly matters; in fact, the wider the variety, the better. In this city, retired machinists visit school metalshops to talk with boys about metalworking

and to demonstrate tricks of the trade. Students are as enlivened by close contact with an oldtime practitioner as the oldtimer was by contact with the eagerness of youth.

An 82-year-old expert on forestry took elementary classes on tours through the city's parks, and along the way conducted a running lecture-discussion about trees

A retired labor arbitrator visited high schools and participated in role playing with students to illustrate how collective bargaining works and how people in a dispute, no matter how heated, can always find some acceptable ground for agreement.

V

CHILD-TO-CHILD TUTORING

CHILDREN LEARN FROM EACH OTHER

Adults keep talking of the education of children as a responsibility that rests solely with certified schoolteachers and sanctified parents. But the obvious fact, as any child knows, is that the most effective teachers of children are often other children. Many who fail to learn from teachers, do succeed in learning from each other—in the streets. They learn so well that one becomes a carbon copy of the other's alienation, hostility, and aimlessness. This, too, is a kind of education and it demonstrates the power of children as learners and teachers.

"The idea of children's teaching other children is anything but new," says John H. Fischer, president of Teachers College, Columbia University. "Games and songs that show up in every generation have been passed down literally for centuries by boys and girls teaching them to others only slightly younger than themselves," Dr. Fischer says. "Why shouldn't it make sense to use the same process, the same energy, to teach other things? Wherever the practice has been encouraged, the results have been at least partly good and in many instances highly successful.

"We should not expect that volunteer tutors will make the professional teacher's job easier. Their principal service is to give the teacher time to concentrate on tasks that untrained volunteers are not likely to do very well, such as introducing new ideas or helping youngsters reason their way through complex problems. The teacher must also be on the lookout for misconceptions that are allowed in. But the advantages of allowing young people to share in teaching and to learn from one another far outweigh the disadvantages. The practice should be widely encouraged."

SIXTH GRADERS TUTOR FIRST GRADERS

In a California school attended mostly by children of the poor, first graders who were failing to learn their ABC's and 1–2–3's from their teachers are learning them eagerly under the guidance of sixth-grade children. Especially bright sixth graders? Not always. Some of the tutors are not only backward learners themselves but rebellious problem children. But they are teaching effectively. Perhaps even more important, the teaching nonlearners are becoming better learners and showing remarkable improvement in their behavior, their dress, and their attitude towards learning. Having responsibility for others seems to make them more responsible about themselves.

A large number of sixth graders are excused from their classes for 45 minutes a day to work with first graders, who also leave their classes. It is perhaps more personal attention than these little ones have ever had. Their teachers wisely have prescribed no curriculum for the short tutoring sessions. Each child out of his own sensitivity to his partner seems to feel out the right thing to do.

An 11-year-old girl named Janathur, a fair student in sixth grade, tells about the problems of Robert, her first-grade partner, whose parents speak only Spanish. It is hard to tell which of the two children is learning more.

"When we started," said Janathur, "Robert didn't know nothing. He couldn't count more than five. When I first tried giving him lessons, he'd just look at me and not say anything. For the whole first week he wouldn't tell me his name. Each day I kept asking him, but he wouldn't tell me. So I'd ask him, 'Would you like to draw a picture?' He'd shake his head—no. Then I'd say, 'Would you like me to read a story?' He'd shake his head—yes. After a whole week of that, I asked him his name, and one day, he said, 'Robert.' I felt so happy. I told him, 'My name is Jan and I'm your tutor.' Then I asked him what he wanted to do. He said, 'I want to learn numbers.' I was surprised because that was just what he could do least in class. Well, I began to write down numbers. He could read 1 to 5. But from 6 up, he didn't know anything. I said '6' and wrote down the number. Then he said '6' and '7' and so on. I wrote numbers on little slips of paper, mixed them up so they weren't in the right order, and told him to make them right. Sometimes he got it, sometimes he didn't. But pretty soon, he'd get it all the time. After he learned his numbers, he said he wanted to learn about words. We started on that and he learned them."

Janathur and Robert were not special. All the teams were absorbed in their work and were having some measure of success, among them Debbie and Patricia. Debbie began getting notes from her little

partner's mother thanking her for teaching Patricia so much. But clearly, the older girl was profiting at least as much as the younger. Debbie's mother, wife of a steadily employed sheet metalworker, said:

"We were thinking last year of moving to a nicer neighborhood, but I decided against it. I was afraid that Debbie wouldn't get this opportunity in another school. That girl has never been so contented, and I know it's just because she has the chance of helping another person. After Debbie began tutoring, she'd come home every day all excited about what she'd taught that day to Patricia. Then she'd start planning next day's lessons. She made us set up a back room in the house as her schoolwork room. My husband worried that taking time to teach someone else might make Debbie's marks go down. But they've gone up. She used to get N in arithmetic—that means 'Needs improvement.' Now she gets G."

Debbie's and Janathur's assistance in relief of the Nation's teacher shortage has long-range as well as short-range implications. Tutoring resulted in their deciding to become teachers. They were already developing original and even professional insights. A visitor to their school recently asked the girls what tutoring had taught them about education—things that adult teachers might not know.

"Teachers," suggested Debbie, "most always call on the smart kids who know the right answers. When a teacher finally does call on a kid who doesn't know the answer, she just embarrasses him and makes fun of him in front of the whole class. She's always so busy with the smart ones, she has no time for the ones who need help."

"I've learned," added Janathur, "that it's best to teach somebody what he's interested in first. He really wants to learn the rest, but he may be afraid. I wanted to teach Robert the alphabet first. I kept thinking that's supposed to be learned first. But I'd ask him questions and he wouldn't answer. When I gave in to him and let him learn numbers, he answered. After that, I saw he wanted to learn the alphabet, but was scared."

The girls were asked how tutoring had affected their own work.

"Now, after we're finished tutoring," said Debbie, "I go back to my class and think about the little kids who want to learn. If I'm ever going to teach them, I have to learn everything so I can help them learn it. That's why schoolwork is more interesting now."

"It makes my work easier," said Janathur. "Like when we get work in arithmetic, it looks so hard. Then I tell myself I might have to explain it to somebody else. When you have to explain it, it makes you see it more clearly."

"When my teacher does something that I think is bad teaching," said Debbie, "I ask myself now how I would do it. Then I make myself my own teacher, and I teach it to myself the better way."

Young male tutors are usually more gruff than girls. Some teachers, more concerned with "good" behavior than with learning, might scold them for this. Yet the gruffness may be a form of interest and affection, a familiar language between boys that may make a tutor more valuable than the cleverest of textbooks.

In the California school a young first grader in a pink sweat shirt, was being tutored by an older boy in a green sweat shirt, who himself had been little but trouble to his teacher—fidgety, mischievous, disdainful of study, displaying all the makings of a school dropout. Both boys were from impoverished homes. When the attention of the younger boy wandered, the older would brusquely prod him to demand attention. Yet the younger sat hunching close, nudging his shoulder into the side of his tutor, as though protecting himself from the cold. They seemed to be acting out a familial love each could understand. The older got up to go to the water cooler. The younger traipsed beside him, not wanting to miss a moment of his admiration of the older. But soon, sitting still and concentrating was too much. The younger went to the water cooler himself. He returned, nudged his pink sweat shirt into the green one, drilled some

more, then returned to the cooler. The older boy lost patience and scolded his youngster.

"Now, you keep getting water every minute, and you're going to grow up stupid and sitting on the sidewalk. You have to pay attention if you want to learn something."

This lecture on the economic consequences of ignorance was instructive not only to the first grader but also to the older boy, who, recalling memories of idle men in the street where he lived, was clarifying the consequences to himself.

Sometimes the older child learns directly from an example set by a younger. A sixth grader named Rod was assigned a first-grade child to tutor, even though Rod was considered a "bad boy." Rod's mother was on public welfare; he had four sisters and no father.

"Rod dressed like a ditchdigger and never combed his hair," says the director of the tutoring program. "This wasn't because of poverty but his need for rebellion. But I could tell that behind his bad behavior, there was an organized mind. He hated his class, so he cut up. He knew he'd be made to sit outside the principal's office. He preferred that to sitting in class. When I asked him to be a tutor, he was surprised but he said he'd try. By chance, the first grader assigned to him was an immaculate child, but one who just wouldn't open up in class. Rod got him to answer questions and study. Almost immediately, Rod stopped contriving to be sent to the principal. He seemed to realize he couldn't be a cutup and a responsible teacher at the same time. Pretty soon he began washing his face and dressing more neatly. I was certain, and so was his teacher, that he was responding toward that little boy, something he previously had felt toward no one. And for the first time, instead of feeling shut out of school life, he felt a part of it."

RESEARCH IN ATTITUDINAL CHANGES OF YOUNG TUTORS

A Midwestern university's institute for social research has been experimenting with new ways of getting older and younger children to influence one another constructively during short periods of a schoolday. The experiments were conducted at two contrasting schools: one private school populated mainly by the bright offspring of university faculty members; the other, a public school with a biracial population of working-class and public welfare children, many classifiable as educationally deprived.

Sixth graders spent 45 minutes a day, 3 days a week, in a junior kindergarten, helping the preschoolers learn to build, paint, paste, and listen to songs and stories. It worked so well that the sixth graders were permitted to become academic assistants in the fourth, third, second, and first grades, helping younger pupils with reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic. Two afternoons a week—also for 45 minutes—the older children met in a seminar to discuss ways in which the older could best help the younger. They exchanged ideas on what could be realistically expected of children of each age and on how errors could be corrected in a manner that was encouraging instead of discouraging. Through role playing, the older children pretended they were younger, by way of testing how they would react to certain kinds of praise or scolding, friendliness or threat. Their habitual disdain for the ways of younger children turned to sympathetic constructiveness.

"My kid took so long spelling a word yesterday," reported one tutor, "I wanted to hit him. But, of course, I didn't. I made sure I was patient."

A teacher asked one pupil what he knew now that he didn't know before about four and a half-year-old junior kindergarteners.

"They all have troubles," the pupil replied. "You wouldn't think they had troubles. I guess everyone has. They don't like to be told what to do. They want to make up their own minds and do things without help."

American children, particularly boys, are not naturally inclined to regard younger children with such sympathy. Before undertaking

their experiments, the researchers conducted attitudinal tests to determine how the pupils felt towards older and younger children. They found that boys generally expect younger children to be nuisances and a waste of time, that girls are more attracted to caring for younger children in the manner of mothers, especially if the little ones are winsome or comical. But girls, too, lose interest when the young ones become teases or demand too much attention. Yet the class experiments showed the same pupils eager for responsibility if the responsibility resulted in success with the little ones and increased status for themselves.

Younger children, on the other hand, regard older children with great admiration, and want very much to "be like them." When 9-year-olds were asked to identify individuals "whom they would most like to be like," they named older children 3 or 4 years older than themselves. It may come as a surprise to parents whose children are forever squabbling to learn that half of the boys with older brothers named an older brother as the ideal model and that almost half of the girls with older sisters named an older sister. Yet children get little chance for real association with older models they admire—and could learn from—in a society of school and play that emphasizes rigid grading by age.

"If a child," says the project director, "has relationships with some who are bigger and some who are smaller, he doesn't have to think of himself in the fixed position of being little. If he can look up and down at the people he lives among, a child gets a more realistic picture of where he lives in society. He is more able to see himself as engaged in a process of evolution."

TUTORS DEVISE THEIR OWN CURRICULUM

An enterprising teacher in another Western school paired good readers with slow ones in her fifth-grade class, good arithmetic students with poor ones. "The idea," she says, "was to tap the strengths of some students to help strengthen the others."

She told the tutors to prepare their own teaching lessons, and even avoided standing in front of the class where her authority would dominate the room. The children enjoyed the self-respect and self-discipline that came from being in charge. "I expected a great deal of them," she says, "and if you expect it, you get it."

Soon after that, the teacher learned of a first-grade Mexican boy, Jose, who knew no English at all. She arranged with Jose's teacher to put him in the charge of a star fifth-grade pupil, Juan, who came from a Spanish-speaking family. Juan, thrilled, asked, "Do you really think I can do it?" His teacher assured him he could.

Juan began inventing teaching materials. He cut up cereal boxes for flashcards. On their unprinted sides, he drew pictures and labeled them with Spanish and English words. Jose rapidly began learning to read—in Spanish and English simultaneously. Then Juan began consulting daily with Jose's teacher to find out what she wanted the child to learn next. One day his teacher asked Juan whether he thought others in his class would like to become tutors of younger people.

"Sure they would," Juan replied.

This experiment-minded teacher got a notion to team other sixth graders with first graders. That's when she began to learn how resistant many teachers could be to a new idea. The first-grade teachers seemed willing to try, but sixth-grade teachers balked. "If they tutor every day," protested one, "They'll miss my teaching."

The teacher cooled the protests by suggesting that sixth-grade teachers, as skilled professionals, could find value in observing the tutors for changes in attitude in their own classes. The purpose, she emphasized, was not only to help the first graders but to help sixth graders develop feelings of responsibility and more positive feelings towards school. The teachers, pleased by this purpose, went along.

Next, the experimenting teacher asked other teachers to select half the tutors from among school misfits—bright children who often

got into trouble with their classmates and school authorities. This time the first-grade teachers hit the roof. They feared exposing their little ones to the influence of older "delinquents" and "misbehavers." The experimenting teacher persuaded them to withhold judgment.

She arranged for the tutors to visit classrooms to observe various teachers in action. Then the tutors talked among themselves about the best ways to teach arithmetic or discuss the structure of a story. They decided it was important to refresh their memories of their own difficulties in first grade. Some recalled they had found it hard to understand what the number "3" means until they learned to count three circles or three pencils or three anything. All agreed that multiplication tables were puzzling until they understood the multiplying of real things. Thus these children were confronting themselves with one of the basic philosophical problems in education, the moving of pupils from experience with concrete realities to skill in manipulating abstract symbols.

Occasionally, the teacher would gather the first graders together and let one of the tutors formally teach a lesson on a blackboard. This was always a high spot for the tutor. A high spot for the teacher was in observing, with repeated surprise, a tutor as he invented an ingenious method of teaching. One tutor, a shy boy who apparently had a special empathy for the shyness of his first grader, made colored cutouts of animals and equipped them with moving paws and mouths. He would talk to the first grader "through" the animal—using it as a puppet—then give the puppet to the child so he could talk back.

Later, the inventor reported to his fellow tutors that he noticed the first grader was much less reticent when his puppet was doing the talking than he was when called upon to talk by himself. That afternoon in the schoolshop almost all the tutors began making puppets of their own. (Since then, at the University of Chicago, a psychologist with a Ph. D. has won considerable attention for independently devising a similar technique to encourage language art in verbally retarded children.)

One of the most successful teaching inventions by a tutor was the simple use of a blank piece of paper. The tutor would ask a first grader to make up a story. The older child would write down whatever the younger one dictated, then teach the younger how to write it himself. A New Zealand educator, Sylvia Ashton-Warner, recently based a best-selling book, "Teacher," on a similar idea of teaching reading and writing through a self-prescribed vocabulary.

Another tutor got the idea of reading a story and stopping before it ended. The younger child would make up his own ending as an exercise in imagination. After each new invention, the teacher would call the tutors together to see the inventor demonstrate it, learn how to make it, and talk about why it was effective.

One evening, the teacher organized a meeting of parents of the first graders being tutored. The tutors demonstrated the teaching devices they had invented. Parents asked if they could make teaching aids and be coached in how to use them at home. The teacher recruited volunteer teachers to meet with these parents. Thus, the stimulation of school spread out from the classroom teacher in ever widening circles.

TUTORING BUILT ON OUT-OF-SCHOOL INTERESTS

A college in North Carolina has built a sizable tutoring force of college and high school students who are especially trained in "starting with the child"—capitalizing on his curiosity about the out-of-school world.

As one novel activity, a tutor tells an elementary-grade child to pretend he has $50 to spend during a scheduled tutoring session. Then they take a walk together to a nearby shopping center. In the dazzling variety of shops and departments, the child "buys" anything he wants and writes down each purchase and the amount of money he has left. Obviously, this

is good practice in arithmetic and in the spelling and writing of words charged with high interest.

But the experience accomplishes other important purposes, too. The child gets practice in making priorities of choices. The tutor has many openings for discussing differences between necessities and luxuries or between items of lasting value and those rapidly consumed and ways of judging workmanship and good value. Tutors were pleased when their pupils decided to save a part of their fictional $50 for things they might want later.

Another important byproduct is that tutors get a direct insight into the individual interests of their young pupils. After a tutor has served for a while, he takes his pupil for a casual walk planned to sharpen the pupil's powers of observation and expression. For example, they walk past a bakery and the child is pleased by the smell. The tutor asks the child to tell about the smell—all the ingredients that help make it and things it reminds him of. In a park the tutor points out two varieties of trees by name and stirs up a conversation about what makes them different.

They spot a person walking along the sidewalk or shopping in a store. The tutor starts a game in which the child is asked to guess things about the unknown person: where

he is going; where he is coming from; what kind of work he does; whether he is friendly or grouchy; what neighborhood he lives in. After each idea volunteered by the pupil, the tutor asks the child to try to explain what led him to that opinion.

Instead of spending all their reading time with workbooks, the tutor uses "walking time" encouraging the child to read signs—the child usually finds them far more interesting than workbooks—and they talk about what the signs mean. What kinds of foods are served in a delicatessen, what kind in a Chinese restaurant? What does "convenient lay-away plan" mean? Why is there "slight extra charge" for getting a suit cleaned in one day?

At the end of a tutoring session, a child is asked to notice interesting things that he sees on the way home and on the way back to school. When he arrives the next day, he is asked to write about them. If they were interesting enough to remember, the probability is that the words describing them are especially interesting words: candy machine, place where the cops hang out, friend's house, broken bottle. Then the pupil is asked to draw a map leading from his house to school (he will probably need help at first) and to show on the map where each of these things was observed. Thus the child is getting practice in diagrammatic as well as verbal symbolism. The child may then be asked to take the map on his trip home and mark it to represent additional things he sees.

The tutor proposes games based on "making deals" which put both persons on equal footing. The tutor asks the child at the end of a session to "bring in five words that you're pretty sure I don't know, and I'll bring in five words I'm pretty sure you don't know. We'll see who knows most of the other's words."

Tutors can have exciting conversations with an individual child that can be valuable in helping him think for himself and get a feeling of some mastery over his environment. Some simple game questions that might lead to such conversations are:

What would you do if you discovered a fire in school?

What if you were carrying a big tray of dishes with two hands and you saw that one plate was about to drop on the floor?

What would you do:

If you saw a car parked on a hill slowly beginning to roll?

If you were taking a test and a good friend of yours whispered that he wanted to copy your answers?

If you found a pocketbook that had $10 in it?

A BABYSITTING SERVICE

To attract young college educated mothers into teacher training programs, one school has provided a babysitting service for its trainees. The service is operated in a high school as part of a domestic arts program and is run by high school girls through every period of the school day under the supervision of a certified teacher.

VI

A COMMUNITY HAS ALL THE PEOPLE A SCHOOL NEEDS

GOLD IS WHERE YOU FIND IT

Regardless of the shortage of trained people available for employment in schools, almost any community abounds with people eager to help broaden the scope of school activities. Many of these are professionals in a variety of fields, available as part-time consultants. Through them, a school may enrich its services despite the shortage of educational professionals. Several different ways of engaging professionals in the schools are illustrated by the resourcefulness of a single school system in a middle-sized city in Michigan.

First of all, the superintendent felt it necessary to get specialized leadership for administering ESEA programs and coordinating them with the local community action program. A nearby city had a long history of educational innovation and community action through early support of a private foundation. The superintendent arranged with the neighboring city for a part-time loan (on a paid basis) of a young man of diversified school and community experience who had impressed everyone as being ready for the first trials of responsible leadership.

Though the superintendent was scrupulously aware of the research and evaluation requirements of his ESEA Title I allowances, he had not been able to find a competent research and evaluation expert. Fewer than 200 of these experts are employed by the Nation's public school systems, more than half of them by the 12 largest school districts. Nevertheless, the superintendent continued his quest in a nearby State university with a good education department. There he found his man—a research specialist eager to accept the offer of an interesting evaluation project into which he could bring a group of bright undergraduates for a year's work.

After still another search for an available health and recreation director, the district found a graduate student in this field at another nearby university, a student who was happy to plan and administer programs to meet some of the schools' needs while completing his requirements for an advanced degree.

The district has had no school nurses in recent years, but it has arranged with the county public health service for nurses, working for this agency, to regularly serve each school and to be available on call for emergencies.

For inservice training of classroom teachers, the district has arranged with the State university education department to have a team of experts conduct continuous seminars on the "psychology of the disadvantaged child."

Reaching out beyond the need for professionals, the schools have arranged for the university to supply students, majoring in education or other fields, to work as aides and tutors in poverty area classrooms. This arrangement, of course, frees teachers of the school district to teach. The university feels benefited, too, because its students acquire good, practical experience.

"If there's a source of help we haven't investigated, I don't know about it," says the superintendent. "You have to go out and beat the bushes for people, and do the best you can with what you have. This often means doing something you've never done before. The alternative is doing nothing at all."

A PARTNERSHIP WITH THE UNIVERSITY

Some time ago a school district in Wisconsin urgently needed to provide diagnosis and remedial work for 125 high school students with problems in reading and speech. Teachers were already overloaded and specialists not available. The school district found a satisfactory solution by dovetailing its need with an equally pressing need of a psychoeducational clinic at a neighboring State university. The clinic had ample facilities and manpower for handling 125 clients, and was eager for subjects.

Now, university people conduct all diagnostic testing, though administrators of the school district retain responsibility for scheduling of tests and approval of recommendations. Students with psychological problems that might be the source of their poor performance in school are referred by teachers to university clinicians for remedial work.

HIGH SCHOOL REMEDIAL READING IN COLLEGE

A school district in the State of Washington was determined to make a last-ditch attempt at remedial reading for high school students on the verge of dropping out. The only "reading expert" available was a guidance counselor with experience in English and reading instruction. Lacking other trained

people, the counselor used teaching machines programed for illiterate adults—simple words but mature content—as well as books on every reading level from third grade up.

The program was successful, but mainly because, school officials guess, the class was located 2½ miles away on a college campus. Use of the college's classroom and teaching machines made the program take on a seriousness and an adult quality that changed the attitudes of students.

Results: Ten of the eleven students completed the program—the eleventh left to join the Job Corps. Of these, all showed substantial gains in reading—from 3 to 5 years on the average—and a general improvement in their other schoolwork. All completed the regular school year.

GUESTS FROM OTHER LANDS

No matter how isolated a small community may feel, it has within it or close at hand perhaps a dozen, perhaps a hundred individuals, who come from other countries.

A classroom teacher in a town in southern Illinois was perhaps more aware than her colleagues of the schools' failure to take advantage of these people's experiences. Her parents were missionaries, and she had lived abroad as a child. One day during her geography lesson, perceiving that the children were bored with the way the textbook

and map tried to convey the spirit of a distant place, the teacher remembered that a number of foreign students were enrolled at a State university 30 miles away. Through telephone inquiry, she learned that these foreign students would be delighted to meet smalltown American schoolchildren and would arrange their own transportation—American classmates of theirs who owned cars were eager to be present at the discussions.

Before long, the "isolated" elementary geography class had had visitors from Egypt, Turkey, Brazil, Liberia, and Denmark. The guests were bombarded with questions about language, clothes, sports, and jobs. Pupils then began to make comparisons, explaining American ways to foreigners. This exercise was at least as valuable to the children as learning about foreign ways. In explaining their own customs, they were realizing for the first time that American ways may be foreign to someone else and were not necessarily the ways of the world.

In discussions emerging from these visits, the teacher learned that several of her children had foreign-born parents. One girl's mother came from Italy, a World War II war bride. One day the teacher arranged for this mother to bring to the class a collection of Italian magazines and pictures and to supervise preparation of genuine Italian foods in the school lunchroom. Other visitors included a father who had grown up in Sweden and a mother who, as a small child, had come from Lebanon and who still maintained ties with relatives there.

This new kind of geography class became the envy of the school. The following year the teacher found herself virtually in show business, organizing a corps of foreign students at the university to put on an international fashion show for the school assembly. Each fashion model gave a brief talk about life in his native country and sang a song or demonstrated a native game.

SELF-TEACHING BY TYPEWRITER

Two years ago a school administrator in upper New York State persuaded the manager of a machine factory to contribute 25 portable typewriters to the school. The school started a Saturday morning typing class for sixth graders, taught by an office manager who had had some volunteer experience in a church group for children. The children were permitted to take the typewriters home for practice during the week. Not one of the machines was lost or significantly damaged.

"The main idea," says the administrator, "is not to teach children how to type. Part of the idea is to say to children and their families: 'Careers in offices and the business world are available. It's time to start getting ready for them.'

"The lending of a new portable typewriter to a deprived child can be a major event in his life. He'll show it to his family and his friends and he'll want to learn how to use it. But, in order to do so, he must know how to spell and how to make sentences and paragraphs. He'll have to practice with words, and, before you know it, his reading and writing ability has improved. That's the real philosophy behind this program. The machine is only a vehicle."

Last year, the school system used Title I funds to buy portables for 125 fifth graders in five predominantly disadvantaged schools. Each day, a teacher from a private school of business—the school contributes her time—gives a half-hour typing lesson at the public school. Children may or may not come, as they please. Almost all do come every day. Many take their portables home each night for doing homework.

ADVENTURE IN A KENTUCKY HOLLOW

An isolated Kentucky "hollow" was recently fortunate in getting the services of a worker from VISTA (Volunteers in Service to America, sometimes called the Domestic Peace Corps). The worker, a retired psychologist, soon discovered that of 133 adults living in the district of a rural schoolhouse only one had gone beyond the third

grade. School officials at the county seat were convinced that most of the families living in the valley were mentally retarded and their children could hardly be expected to learn. As a natural result, most of the children did not learn very well.

The VISTA worker decided to try to establish some facts. She gathered all the children of preschool age and gave them a standard nonverbal intelligence test. Even she was surprised with the results. Not one child scored under 90 (even though older children, reacting perhaps to the low expectations of their teacher, often scored below the normal range). The worker informed school authorities of the results and did her best to let parents know how bright their children were. This led the county school superintendent to look for new, ambitious ways to pump up the quality of education in schools along distant backroads.

The VISTA worker demonstrated to country schoolteachers how simple a matter it was to administer and grade a preschool intelligence test and showed them that it was not necessary to have a school psychologist on the staff as a requirement for gathering basic diagnostic information.

COMMUNITY MENTAL HEALTH

A Midwestern city board of health received a grant for a pilot program in mental health to serve one of its poorest neighborhoods. The budget permitted employment of three research psychiatrists. But even this windfall of professional skill seemed miniscule, almost hopeless, against the enormous numbers who needed help in the painfully crowded community. As a first step, the psychiatrists formed an advisory committee of other professionals in and around the pilot program area. After weeks of discussion, this committee decided the best place to begin a program was with children of the first grade—of which there were 1,500.

In groups of about 15, the children were observed and tested in free play situations. Those extremely aggressive or withdrawn were tentatively identified as disturbed and listed for further study. Meanwhile, classroom teachers had been asked to list their most difficult problem children. The two lists were remarkably similar.

These identifications were followed by a long period of conversations between psychiatrists and teachers, and psychiatrists and children. Sometimes a psychiatrist, teacher, and three or four children in a group talked together. One object of these conferences was to develop a common understanding of problems so that individuals—adults as well as children—might learn to become more constructive members of the group. Another object, however, was to identify children who showed little hope of rapid improvement as group members. To the relief of teachers, the psychiatrists recommended that these children be removed from regular classes. In many cases, when these problem children were grouped in special classes and removed from the daily pressure of being good according to other people's standards, their behavior improved dramatically.

Of course, research grants for pilot studies are not available to many communities. But funds are now available to local communities through the Public Health Service and National Institute of Mental Health to finance community mental health programs. Although skilled personnel in mental health are at least as hard to find as skilled educators, these national programs may enable school districts to make cooperative arrangements with local mental health clinics or social work agencies.

THE COMMUNITY RESOURCE REPRESENTATIVE

A large Midwestern city school system has had success in employing parents as school-community resource representatives in impoverished neighborhoods. The parents, usually poor themselves, are paid by the local Community Action Program with funds from the Office of Economic Opportunity. As a liaison between neighborhood and school, however, the representative is responsible to the school principal.

The idea for the job grew out of an attempt to acquaint parents of Project Head Start children with the resources of school and city. A teacher had been assigned to invite parents to school, give them the opportunity to observe classrooms in action, and take them on tours to places of employment, museums, television studios, hospitals, and parks.

This effort seemed so useful that a school official wondered why intelligent, resourceful parents couldn't conduct similar programs in each school neighborhood. After the support of principals was won, parents were chosen for their previous interests in PTA and other school-community functions and their talent for organization. School principals were given the final selection of candidates to make sure they would feel comfortable in working with the school-community representative. The program began with a summer schedule of 8 weeks of full-time training. It consisted of four major topics: the school, the child, the community, and group dynamics.

Though the most important role of the school-community representative is inviting parents to schools to get them acquainted with teachers, curriculum, the nurse, school psychologist, dietitian, librarian, and custodian, she also assembles information about important resources outside the school—police officials, businessmen, hospitals, mental health centers, playgrounds, and

even the political precinct captains. In addition, she finds out about people with specialized knowledge. Does the community have a resident chemist or photographer, someone who raises tropical fish or is an expert in weaving, a specialist of some sort who can help a teacher and her students? The resource representative can be the arm of the teacher for reaching these valuable individuals and getting them into the classroom.

THE HELPING BOARD

Perhaps the most simple and direct—and certainly successful—instrument for linking school and community was produced by a town in Virginia. It was called "The Helping Board."

The principal, in consultation with teachers and interested parents, made a list of community people who knew how to get things done, had influence among their colleagues, and desired to volunteer for public service. For each school a board of five to seven people was organized. Members might be a doctor, a lawyer, businessman, minister, labor union leader, or official of a social agency. The board's job was to consider special problems brought to them by teachers, parents, and children.

For example, a teacher, troubled by the irregular attendance at school of a bright young girl, learned upon investigation that the child had only two dresses, her father was out of a job, and unemployment insurance barely kept the family fed. The Helping Board first found clothes for the girl and then located a temporary job for the father.

Eventually, the Helping Board not only aided parents and teachers in solving individual problems but made valuable suggestions to the Board of Education on changing certain administrative policies. There was the case of the teacher who came to the Helping Board to tell of a boy who was almost always hungry because he had no money for lunch. "Why doesn't he bring lunch?" a board member asked. "Bringing lunch, is not permitted," the teacher answered. "Why doesn't he go home for lunch?" The teacher explained that the child's mother worked days as a cleaning woman.

The Helping Board secured information about a number of such instances and brought them to the attention of the Board of Education. School board members, surprised at the inconvenience caused by their inflexible lunch regulations, rapidly set about changing them.

The Helping Board is easy to organize and operate, and it can alleviate the difficulties of everyone in the school system, from superintendent to the most impoverished, alienated pupil. As a bridge between school and community, it can find solutions to many difficult school problems.